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ABSTRACT

One hundred and twenty-two readings from sources published between 1900 and 1947 cover aspects of language teaching in the United States. Chapters on the history of modern language teaching and on programs, projects, and activities are particularly lengthy. Other chapters discuss values of foreign language study, foreign language in the general curriculum, aims and objectives, psychology of language learning, methods and techniques, tests and measurements, training and selection of teachers, the Army Specialized Training Program, and reports, proposals and recommendations. A shorter chapter is devoted to realia and audiovisual aids for teaching foreign civilization. Appendixes contain descriptions of examinations, sample questions, and realia lists. (AF)

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# Twentieth Century
# Modern Language Teaching

## Sources and Readings

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With an Introduction by
**NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER**
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# INTRODUCTION

The steady decline in the study of foreign languages in American secondary schools and colleges has been a matter of deep concern to everyone interested in liberal education. This has resulted chiefly from the pressure of social studies upon the curricula. It is a part of the theory held by many professors of Education that subjects which require training for competence in a particular field of subject-matter should give place to a program of "general education," which introduces the student to a wide range of subjects but provides no opportunity for a systematic and well-founded knowledge in any one of them. In addition, professional and other prevocational courses have now penetrated even to the freshman year of college work. The advisers who supervise undergraduate programs in medicine, law, and the natural or the political and social sciences do frequently, to be sure, recommend the study of French, German, or some other foreign language, but are apt to stress their value only as tools for chemistry, medicine, or some other field of vocational concentration. Thus the languages, like English literature and mathematics, have been brought almost to extinction by the pressure of courses in general education and the ever-increasing demand of special training for vocations. Obviously, this strikes at the very roots of a liberal education. In the present world the ability to speak and read with ease at least one foreign language is more than ever necessary if the mind and imagination of American youth are to be set free for expansion beyond the narrow horizon of vocational interests and national prejudice.

The harmful results of these curriculum restrictions are quite evident in the products of graduate and professional schools. The equipment of the generation of younger scholars in the languages of humanistic and scientific scholarship is neither as general nor as effective as in the preceding generation. Then many of these graduates found opportunity for training at a European university. It is astonishing that while the decades since the First World War have drawn us into ever-closer communication with foreign peoples and put on us an ever-increasing responsibility in world affairs, they have also been marked by a steady decline in the study of foreign languages. The substitution of reading tests for classroom training in satisfaction of college graduation requirements overlooks the vital relationship between the spoken language and a knowledge of the culture of other peoples. In the mind of the student it makes dead material of what might well be the most vital expression of man's soul. It creates the impression that the ability to interpret a few lines of a foreign text is just an artificial hurdle to be crossed on the path toward really important studies.

It is often said that American weakness in foreign languages is due to poor teaching. The main responsibility, however, is quite different. As a matter of fact, there is no curriculum subject, unless it be mathematics, where teachers have applied themselves more diligently to meet an increasingly difficult curriculum situation. Limited as they are by a narrow time-allotment, which usually allows only two years in college or two to three years in secondary school, in most cases three hours per week, to the study of a foreign language, they have been obliged to concentrate on the one possible objective, the ability to read, and have directed their attention to accelerating the student's progress toward this modest goal. Under these conditions the student tends to look on French, German, Spanish, or Italian as dead languages.

Like the World War of 1914–18, the present conflict brought in evidence an appalling deficiency in useful knowledge of foreign languages when our young men were called into service. After more than a year's delay, the Army undertook to meet the emergency on a large scale and thereby opened a new possibility for language instruction in this country. In the spring of 1943, under the Specialists Training Program, courses were opened in more than fifty colleges throughout the country and thousands of soldier-students were studying foreign languages for immediate use. The program included the languages of the Near, Middle, and Far East, in addition to those of Europe. It meant, first of all, training in understanding and speaking the language, and required highly intensive training. These courses extended over three terms of twelve weeks each, fifteen hours per week of group instruction, ten hours of which were given to practice in squads of ten or less under the guidance of a native or bilingual instructor. Parallel with this were courses on the geography and the economic, social, and political institutions of the country whose languages were studied. The results were surprising. A few months ago a committee of the Modern Language Association of America visited more than four hundred places where these language courses are being given, and interviewed hundreds of Army officers, administrators, and instructors charged with responsibility for them. These visitors found the soldier-students able to understand the language when spoken by a native and to speak it readily and intelligibly on a wide range of subjects. They found them also able to read the language with astonishing facility and to write the Western European languages with considerable freedom and correctness. This experiment is new evidence that the young American can master a language in a relatively short time if he is able to devote himself to it intensively. The teachers who saw the work concluded that the results were due to the increased number of hours of contact with the instructor, especially in small groups, and to the stimulus of student interest through study of a foreign country by training in the language of its people.

The results of the Army's experiment have a high potential value for the post-war years. They contradict the theory that the American youth cannot become language-minded, and offer conclusive evidence that he can do so if given sufficient time and the advantage of an intimate contact with the life and institutions of other peoples, who have all now become our neighbors whether they live in South America, Europe, Africa, or China. Many administrators and teachers, including those outside the language group, feel that foreign language study will now enter on a new period of development. Several institutions have established courses for intensive study, involving a generous allotment of time, with training in small groups under native or bilingual leadership. Barnard College has already begun an experiment of this kind, and the Committee on Post-War Curriculum at Columbia College has a similar proposal under consideration, involving ten hours per week for the student who begins this work.

Whatever plan results from these efforts, it cannot accomplish all that is expected of it unless public opinion supports the need for a complete change in our attitude toward foreign language study and unless educational institutions make a readjustment in allotment of time and financial support. The two main purposes of foreign language study must be always kept in mind. These are its contribution to the humanizing influence of a liberal education and the equipment of the college graduate with ability to make direct contact with the culture and science of at least one foreign country and the people who live in it. This involves a clearer definition than heretofore of the part which each individual course may contribute to these ends. The ability to read and to speak the language is fundamental to an understanding of the thought of another people and to the communication of our own to them. This competence will certainly be important to any college graduate who expects to qualify for some form of leadership in the post-war world.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
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# FOREWORD

Anyone who is foolhardy enough to attempt a survey of publications in the field of modern foreign language methodology comes to the sorry realization that we foreign language teachers are an exceedingly articulate and voluble fraternity. We suffer from a kind of occupational disease that may be due, in part, to the vocalizing talents which constitute our special competency. Since about the 1920's we have regularly been filling the pages of some ten periodicals, not to mention scores of textbooks, surveys, proceedings, monographs and symposia, with expatiations on the techniques and problems of our craft. Our prolixity stems not only from our native talents but also from the fact that we are constantly on the defensive and hence constantly overcompensating. For one thing, we are in a field that is extremely sensitive to political conditions abroad. For another, we occupy an unstable position in the general scheme of American education. Moreover, the subject of language teaching, in its very nature, is far from being an exact science; it advances haphazardly, not cumulatively, and hence lends itself to nebulous speculation. There is an unconscionable amount of repetition in our publications, often of the same flabby truisms or long-since-exploded fallacies. Everywhere, the investigator is met with a plethora of unsupported asseveration, of tempest-in-a-teapot polemics, personal crotchets and often, alas, nothing but vague afflatus.

In stark relief stand a few monuments of collective effort that engaged the best minds of the profession. Foremost among these, of course, are the volumes of the Modern Language Study. Although conditions have changed and although the criticism levied against certain of the Study's findings is still a live issue, the Modern Language Study is still exemplary of the best that we have accomplished as a profession. Its compilation of statistical and experimental evidence, its delineation of our problems, and the many fruitful vistas it opened up for future investigation have guided practice and research for over two decades. It will, no doubt, continue to serve us as a model of rigorous method for decades to come.

In addition to excerpts from the Modern Language Study, this book contains selections of permanent value from the Report of the Committee of Twelve and from Handschin's pioneer work on the history of foreign language teaching in the United States, among other out-of-print or not easily available material. A glance at the table of contents will reveal a catholic selection of sources from which other valuable material has been culled, including federal, state and municipal publications, syllabi, textbooks, language journals, committee reports and conference proceedings. Taken as a whole, the collection includes most of the representative themes and problems that have occupied foreign language teachers in the United States for nearly half a century. An effort has been made to present each selection in as complete a form as possible in order to retain the author's personal style and avoid the distortions of quoting out of context. In the case of controversial issues, conflicting points of view are generally represented, depending on the gravity of the issue. It has also been deemed advisable in the interest of truth and reality to give representation to points of view which are frankly critical of the value of foreign language study in American education.

The criteria of selection and the categories under which the selections are grouped are based on a few simple principles. The *terminus a quo* has been set at the turn of the century. To be sure, there are a few historical sketches, but these are all by twentieth century writers and merely serve in the introductory chapter to place the entire collection into proper perspective. Although there are a few incidental references to conditions abroad, the selections deal primarily with foreign language teaching in the United States. The languages treated are the major foreign languages of our American curricula. The categories are inherent in the subject matter itself and are largely the same as those found in similar compendious treatments. It should be kept in mind, however, that the categories adopted are merely a logical convenience and by no means exhaust the many other topics that cut across their boundaries.

To obviate the possible arbitrariness and undoubted limitations of a single individual in a task of this magnitude, the aid of an Advisory Board has been invoked. However, fairness to the members of this Board calls for a precise statement as to their functions and responsibilities. Each member of the Advisory Board suggested a few articles of his or her own authorship as well as others by different authors but in the same subject field. All were exceedingly helpful with suggestions and material. Whenever possible these were adopted, but copyright restrictions as well as limitations imposed by considerations of space and the desire to keep within the subject categories of the book made it impossible in a few instances to include all the recommended items. In the last analysis, therefore, the final responsibility of selection rested with the editor.

The editor does not presume to dictate the manner in which this book is to be used. Its value as a handbook for modern foreign language teachers should be obvious. It provides concise, authoritative and documented answers to the many questions that confront the foreign language teacher: in planning courses of study, in selecting textbooks, in employing the best methods and techniques for classroom teaching, in ordering and using realia and other teaching aids, in planning and administering testing programs, in giving proper guidance to students concerning the choice of a foreign language, in planning projects and conducting extra-curricular activities. Its chapters on the history of foreign language teaching, the values of foreign language study and the place and function of the foreign languages in the general curriculum, among others, should fortify the foreign language teacher's professional background and sense of the dignity and justification of his calling. To the embattled foreign language teacher, often unskilled in argumentation, this book will supply the ammunition for justifying the study of his subject to administrators, educationists, pupils, the general public and also, alas, to that far-from-rare anomaly, the language teacher of little faith.

Whether the book is consigned to the library, to the department office or to the seminar as a source book, or whether it is used in class to supplement a textbook, or in lieu of one, is left to the judgment of the instructor. For those instructors who do not use a specified textbook in the methods course but prefer to assign readings from various sources, followed by class reports and discussions, this collection should facilitate procedure by placing into the students' hands the sources themselves, many of which are difficult of access or available in the college library only in the form of a single copy for an entire class. Where a textbook is used, the instructor will find that this collection contains many of the cited references, thus providing a useful supplement. The collection should be of especial value to the general curriculum maker as well as the foreign language curriculum specialist, especially when syllabi are being written or revised. It is to be hoped that the new generation of teachers-in-training as well as those teachers who have entered the foreign language field under emergency conditions, without formal methodological preparation, will avail themselves of the many aids which this book offers. It should certainly contribute to their sense of professional *esprit de corps* and serve as a safeguard against the grosser pedagogical indiscretions to which unalert language teachers are subject.

M. N.

Brooklyn, New York,
September, 1947

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It is with deep regret that we note the death of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, news of which reached us as this book was going to press.

# ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| *EO* | Educational Outlook |
| *FR* | French Review |
| *GQ* | German Quarterly |
| *H* | Hispania |
| *HP* | High Points |
| *MfdU* | Monatshefte für deutschen Unterricht |
| *MLJ* | Modern Language Journal |
| *P.A.C.C.* | Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages |
| *SS* | School and Society |

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# 1 : HISTORY OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

## THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGES FROM THE MIDDLE AGES TO THE PRESENT: A HISTORICAL SKETCH

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[From *The Teaching of German,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1940.
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(pp. 3–15) After the fall of the Roman Empire, Latin persisted for a long time as a link between the nations of the West. Latin became the language of the school and the church and, as a medium for any higher education, it remained indispensable until about 1770, when the vernacular languages took its place.

Before and during the Middle Ages classical Latin gradually and imperceptibly changed to its later forms: first middle Latin and finally vulgar Latin. While these changes were taking place, Latin was a living language, and was acquired in a simple and natural way through hearing, speaking and reading. Before the invention of printing, when manuscripts were rare and costly, instruction was mainly based on oral practice, oral examinations or disputations. "The pupil lived in a Latin-speaking atmosphere in which there was abundant opportunity for self-expression in the interminable controversies and discussions which formed . . . an essential part of medieval education." [1]

One of the most popular presentations of Latin grammar was written by Aelius Donatus during the fourth century A.D. His treatise on *De octo partibus orationis* constituted a brief Latin primer, became one of the most common of early printed books, and remained in use for more than a thousand years.[2] Yet the simple Donatus was forgotten as soon as the classics had been read again and again. Teachers leaned more and more toward the formal side of instruction, and grammar became more essential than the words of Cicero or Homer. Grammar was no longer a modest means toward an important end; it became an end in itself. "Out of the texts were dug the foundation stones of grammatical structure, artistic and symmetrical, so that finally a dead system of rules acquired independent value. . . . Beginners in Latin sighed under its tyrannous yoke, and for several centuries it held undisputed sway . . . Language teaching became utter desolation, . . . heartily loathsome to youth."[3] Thus only "for a short period during the Renaissance the classical languages were presented in a vital way."[4]

There were exceptions nevertheless. A certain Lucas di Marinis, a Sicilian, who devoted his life to letters and education in Spain, where he was named Lucio Marineo, was utterly dissatisfied with Latin instruction at the University of Salamanca. In his dedication to Queen Isabella "Marineo explained that he found his students . . . almost completely lacking in the first principles of grammar; he found that they stood in fear of bulky and verbose volumes of other grammarians; and that, thinking that his *discipuli* should be led to the enjoyment of Latin books and the mastery of smooth and practical speech in a shorter and easier way, he had prepared these *Grammatices compendia*, based on the Latin authors themselves."[5] The edition of 1532 was published in Alcalá under the title *Lucii Marinei Siculi Grammatica brevis ac perutilis*, as a small volume of sixty-seven pages, in beautiful and clear print, containing not more and not less than bare essentials. Since this grammar is very interesting in the light of present conditions, we shall quote from Marineo's Introduction:

> Judging these few things to be enough for beginners and the rest not necessary, I leave it to others fruitlessly to weary the minds of their students. For if, after they have made acquaintance with the form of words, they will spend that time which others spend on rules of grammar, in hearing the authors from whom those same rules are taken, they will certainly advance more, and become not grammarians but Latinists. Thus boys are being taught in Italy, thus in Germany. Witness of this in olden time is Quintilian; witness now in Germany is Erasmus . . . See to it then, I ask, nay I entreat, if you fear the judgment of God, you who teach boys grammar, that you do not place your own advantage above that of your students, and spread over five years what you could teach them in five months.[6]

Caro Lynn in her delightful and scholarly book continues: "This method did away with the learning by heart of complicated singsong rules; it gave the student the essentials in a volume of hopeful size; it familiarized by simple quotation with Latin authors; and it left the burden of language mastery on the use of language itself. It was a very modern method. . . ."[7]

Emphatically in opposition to the purely formal approach to Latin, Philipp Melanchton (1497–1560), too, had declared that grammar should never become an object in itself; Martin Luther (1483–1546) had insisted on "not too much drill on rules"; and Wolfgang Ratichius (his real name was Ratke), the worthy predecessor of Comenius, had pointed back to the times when the student paid little attention to grammar, but instead, from the beginning of his study, had read eagerly and widely, soon becoming familiar with the language.[8]

The most interesting example of learning a foreign language during early childhood in a perfectly natural and effortless way is reported by Michel de Montaigne (1533–1592), who in his famous essay, *De l'institution des enfants,* describes the method by which he learned Latin easily and fluently. His father was a nobleman and a serious student of education. Anxious to provide the best possible training for his son, he entrusted him to the care of a competent tutor who spoke only Latin to him.

> "As for the other members of my father's household," Montaigne tells us, "it was an inviolable rule that neither himself (i.e. his father), nor my mother, nor man—nor maid-servant were suffered to speak one word in my company except such Latin words as everyone had learned to chat and prattle with me . . . To be short, we were latinized that the towns round about us had their share of it. As for myself I was about six years old, and could understand no more French or Perigordine than Arabic . . . and without books, rules or grammar, without whipping or whining, I had gotten as pure a Latin tongue as my Master could speak . . . The best scholars have often told me that in my infancy I had the Latin tongue so ready and so perfect that they themselves feared to take me in hand."[9]

As we see immediately, this simple method deserves to be termed "natural," for it is, in fact, no more and no less than an exact and faithful reproduction of the process by which we learn our native language.

In the same essay Montaigne tells us that at the age of six he was sent to the college of Guyenne, at the time the best and most flourishing classical college in France. Latin was no longer spoken in the schools, and Montaigne soon lost the facility to converse in it.

John Amos Comenius (1592–1670), born in Nivitz, Moravia, a leader and later a Bishop in the Moravian or Bohemian Church, through his extraordinary genius became a pioneer of modern education. For a short time he studied in Heidelberg, then in Amsterdam, where he spent the last days of an eventful life.

Finding the teaching of Latin altogether deficient, he experimented with a Latin grammar, and wrote several texts, which greatly simplified the teaching of Latin. In 1628 he completed his *Ianua Linguarum Reserata,* "The Gate of Tongues Unlocked," which, published in 1631, was immediately translated into sixteen different languages and for many generations remained a standard work. This book was based on several thousand words in common use, arranged in sentences, at first easy, then more complex, presenting a working knowledge of simple Latin. A hundred captions dealt with a wide variety of topics, from the

"Origin of the World" to the "Providence of God." Grammar was not presented by rules, but by being applied; the skilful teacher was expected to present it through induction. Each word was used only once in one meaning and one construction, nevertheless it was the first attempt to present grammar inductively.[10]

In 1632 appeared his *Magna Didacta*, "The Great Didactic," a truly prophetic work for his time and quite modern in conception. *Orbis Pictus*, "The World in Pictures," published in 1658, is the first significant and successful application of pictures for use in schools. Comenius' thesis was: *Nihil est in intellectu quod non prius fuerit in sensu*, "Nothing is in the understanding which has not previously been in the senses." According to this principle, each Latin word was preceded by an illustration.[11]

The most significant statement of Comenius is: "Every language must be learned by practice rather than by rules, especially by reading, repeating, copying, and by written and oral attempts at imitation,[12] but his wisdom seems to have been forgotten soon after his death. Comenius had anticipated more than three centuries ago what we unwittingly ignore in modern times.[13]

John Locke (1632–1700) in his essay on *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* [14] plainly shows the influence of Montaigne and Comenius. He recommends French as a second foreign language for children, but "talked into" the child in a strictly natural way. He assails vigorously the foolishness and the pedantry of schoolmasters and protests against the teaching of Latin to pupils intended for a trade or for commerce. Condemning the grammatical method of teaching Latin, he advises some easy and pleasant book, such as Aesop's *Fables*, "writing the English translation in one line and the Latin words just over it in another. . . . The formation of the verbs first," he says, "and afterwards the declension of the nouns perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the Latin tongue. . . . Languages," Locke continues, "were not made by rules or art, but by accident and the common use of the people. And he that will speak them well has no other rule but that, nor anything to trust to but his memory and the habit of speaking after the fashion learned from those that are allowed to speak by rote." And as for grammar, "if his use . . . be only to understand some books writ in it, without a critical knowledge of the tongue itself, reading alone, as I have said, will attain this end, without charging the mind with the multiplied rules and intricacies of grammar." [15]

Stated in modern terms, the essence of Locke's argument is this: we do not learn a language by rule, but by use, not by committing to memory the conjugation of verbs and the inflection of nouns, but by applying the forms of language in whatever way we intend to use them. In other words, our individual aim and our individual and specific application and practice determine the result.

Johann Valentin Meidinger (1756–1820) published in 1783 a book with the alluring title: *Praktische französische Grammatik, wodurch man diese Sprache auf eine ganz neue und sehr leichte Art in kurzer Zeit erlernen kann.* Up to that time it had been customary to translate from the foreign into the native tongue. With Meidinger, translation into the foreign tongue became all-important. His sequence of instruction was (1) grammatical rule, (2) translation into the foreign language with the help of footnotes. In other words, the student manufactured himself the language he intended to learn, a process appropriately called *Meidingerei* by Wilhelm Viëtor.[16]

More in sympathy with Comenius, James Hamilton (1764–1829) issued his *The Hamiltonian System*, according to which he himself had learned German. His basic theory was that the student must be introduced from the beginning to the living language, and that he must gain the laws of language inductively. This was fundamentally the same theory which later was to gain general recognition through the German reformers. Hamilton's text was far too difficult for beginners, his system being based on the Gospel according to St. John.

Entirely in accord with Hamilton's basic idea, Jean Joseph Jacotot (1770–1840) wrote his *Enseignement universel* (1823), with Fénelon's *Télémaque* as the basic text. Both Hamilton and Jacotot influenced the *Unterrichtsbriefe* of Toussaint-Langenscheidt intended for self-instruction, popular to this day with mature students.[17]

Johann Heinrich Seidenstücker (1785–1817) attempted to avoid the obstacle of offering too difficult material to beginners. In his *Elementarbuch zur Erlernung der französischen Sprache* (1811) he limited himself to disconnected sentences. He succeeded in writing easy sentences, all containing the same grammatical phenomena, but failed in other vital respects. The same is true of Johann Franz Ahn (*Französischer Lehrgang*, 1834) and of H. S. Ollendorf (*Methode, eine Sprache in sechs Monaten lesen, schreiben und sprechen zu lernen*, 1783).[18]

Karl Plötz (1819–1881), to some an idol, to others the embodiment of every linguistic malfeasance in language pedagogy, dominated through his French and English textbooks the schools of Germany until long after his death. He was an indefatigable worker, a complete master of the language he attempted to teach, and the last and most influential representative of the grammar-translation method. Plötz, who attempted a correction of Ollendorf and who, according to Viëtor, only effected "a new infusion of grammar," divided his texts into two parts: (1) rules and paradigms; (2a) French sentences; (2b) German sentences. The sole form of instruction was mechanical translation. The type of sentences was:

> The garden is beautiful. The king has a black horse. The wall is black. I have a bread (*sic*). Thou hast a book and a dog. The brother has got a beautiful gift. The horse of the father was kind.

In sum, it was "a barren waste of insipid sentence translation," as one writer terms it. There was seldom the relief of questions. "Committing words to memory, translating sentences, drilling irregular verbs, later memorizing, repeating and applying grammatical rules with their exceptions—that was and remained our main occupation; for not until the last years of the higher schools with the nine-year curriculum did French reading come to anything like prominence, and that was the time when free compositions in the foreign language were to be written."[19]

Bahlsen, the author of the last lines, had been a student of Plötz and assures us that whenever he and his fellow students were obliged to write a letter, or speak in the foreign language, there arose before their minds "a veritable forest of paragraphs," and "an impenetrable thicket of grammatical rules."

In 1866 Gottlieb Heness started a small private school of modern languages at New Haven. He is the rediscoverer or reinterpreter of the "natural method." His text *Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache* (1867) proved to be a healthy reaction against the grammar-translation method of Ollendorf, Ahn, Plötz, and others. Heness was joined a few years later by L. Sauveur, the author of *Causeries avec mes élèves* and *Petites Causeries*, and their undertaking flourished until about 1900. They founded a school in Cambridge, established summer schools of modern languages in various centers, and counted many outstanding personalities among their students, for instance, Eliot, Longfellow and Gilman. "These summer schools were largely attended by modern language teachers, who were undoubtedly stimulated to try out in their classes at least some of the ideas they had gathered during the five weeks' intensive work."[20]

The lack of system is characteristic of the "natural method," and it is bound to lead to disappointment, unless combined with other methods, bringing system and order into natural disorder.

In 1867, the same year when Heness reinterpreted the "natural" method, Claude Marcel published his fascinating book on *The Study of Languages Brought Back to Its True Principles, or the Art of Thinking in a Foreign Language.*[21] This worthy treatise, written more than sixty years ago, retains its charm for any student seriously interested in the pedagogy of reading foreign languages. Marcel aims to impart a full mastery of the foreign language. First he trains the student's ear by having the teacher read extensively to him. Then the student begins to read simple, and if possible, familiar material, followed by more and more difficult discourse as he slowly progresses. The procedure is hearing, reading, speaking and finally, what Marcel considers the least desirable ability, writing. There is no formal training in grammar or translation. Marcel insists that grammar does not facilitate reading, since it fails to explain the meaning of words or phrases. Again and again he objects to grammatical comment on language, maintaining that reading is the best way of acquiring a large number of words and phrases. He recommends literal translation or indirect reading in the beginning as an introduction to direct reading, the student's ultimate aim. He is against the use of dictionaries which, he says, prevent the student from reading more than twenty-five or thirty lines a day, or one volume a year, while in reality "twenty-five or thirty volumes at least should be read to secure the complete acquisition of the art of reading." [22]

Marcel quotes Benjamin Franklin's wise counsel: "If a book be worth reading once, it should be read twice." Then he goes on to say: "if, at an advanced stage, it is not worth reading twice, it ought not to be read at all. . . . Productions of sterling worth afford new pleasures, and unfold new beauties at each successive reading; whilst those of inferior character scarcely bear a second perusal; they exhibit more imperfections, according as they are more frequently or attentively read." [23]

Claude Marcel was a pioneer. He has greatly influenced the teaching of foreign languages, particularly in the United States, since about 1920. His fundamental argument equals the motto: "Learn to read by reading," an altogether sound doctrine, recently revived by Michael West.[24]

François Gouin in his *L'art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues* [25] tells of his various endeavors to learn German, and of his experience with his son who inspired him with an idea that was to become the basis of his elaborate system. One day he observed his little son, who, in a series of carefully arranged steps, imitated a miller in his daily work: (1) The miller fills his bags with corn (sand, of course); (2) he puts a bag on his shoulders; (3) he carries it to the mill; (4) he throws it down; (5) he puts it into the mill; (6) the mill begins to grind. Gouin conceived the idea of developing this logical sequence of simple events for school use. His class procedure was: (1) the teacher explains in the vernacular the general content of the reading selection; (2) he enacts the events, describing at the same time what he does; (3) the single acts are then divided, and again enacted; (4) all this is done first orally, then in writing. Here is an example from Gouin's *Erstes Übungsbuch für das Deutsche:*

> *Der Hund sucht. Er sucht und sucht. Er wittert eine Kette Rebhühner. Er tut eine Kette Rebhühner auf. Er steht. Er geht auf den Befehl des Jägers vor. Die Rebhühner bemerken (sehen) den Hund. Sie fürchten sich vor dem Hunde. Sie fliegen auf. Sie fliegen davon. Der Jäger sieht die Kette Hühner davonfliegen. Er ergreift sein Gewehr. Er legt an (führt das Gewehr zur Schulter). Er zielt und zielt. Er drückt ab. Der Schusz geht los. Die Ladung trifft ein Huhn. Das Huhn fällt zur Erde.*[26]

Throughout the course the foreign language is presented in systematic order by simple sentences, following each other in logical sequence. Each selection consists of 18 to 30 sentences. Fifty selections constitute one series. Several series combine to one general series. The five general series are equal to 2500 selections or 50,000 sentences. This elaborate and ambitious system is fully described by R. Kron, who also gives the literature that arose about the *Seriensystem*[27] as well as many enthusiastic commendations from various foreign countries.[28]

Gouin was little known in France. He had his greatest success in Germany. The new element which he brought into language teaching was that the student is forced to be intensely active with his whole being while dramatizing the single sentences of a given selection, an advantage hard to overestimate. Gouin's most vulnerable points were that he opposed phonetics, reading, and written exercises. Nevertheless to him belongs the distinction of having presented for the first time in flawless order and clear logic a consistent speech course which, unfortunately, was destined to fail through the very weight of its lofty ambition; for it was both too extensive, encompassing approximately 8000 words, and too one-sided, ignoring all phases of language except speech.[29]

Meanwhile, about the middle of the nineteenth century a new science had been born, "the science of speech sounds and the art of pronunciation," as it was called by Henry Sweet. Alexander John Ellis published his *Essentials of Phonetics* (1848), E. Brücke his *Grundzüge der Physiologie und der Systematik der Sprachlaute* (1856), Alexander Bell his *Visible Speech* (1867) and his *Sounds and their Relations* (1882). Henry Sweet, Sievers, Trautmann, Helmholz, Passy, Rambeau, Klinghardt, and others untiringly developed this new science[30] to such an extent that today it has become an indispensable help in any language course. Archibald Sayce applied the newly founded science to the problems of language teaching, and Wilhelm Viëtor, at the time a lecturer in German at the University of Liverpool, after his return to Germany, issued in 1882 a pamphlet entitled *Der Sprachunterricht musz umkehren, ein Beitrag zur Überbürdungsfrage, von Quousque Tandem.*[31]

Viëtor's pamphlet acted like a trumpet call to arms. High praise followed violent attack. A considerable literature arguing for and against Viëtor's principles was the result. The "reform," the "new," or the "phonetic method" was lauded and condemned in numberless articles and books, the crux of the controversy being a strictly oral procedure with ample use of *realia* in opposition to older methods, which professed to favor "intellectual and aesthetic interests." The debate ended in a compromise, and the "direct method" finally evolved out of the bitter struggle.[32]

Space does not allow us to discuss the interesting details of the quarrel. May it suffice to mention that Breymann and Steinmüller collected, summarized, and evaluated the large number of books and articles in *Die neusprachliche Reform-Literatur von 1876–1909: Eine bibliographisch-kritische Übersicht.*[33] A final summing up of the controversy over the direct method appeared in 1909. It read:

"The Reform has fulfilled its mission. It has laid the ghosts of the grammatical method, which made a fetish of the study of grammar with excessive attention to translation from and into the foreign language. Reading formerly served chiefly as a handmaiden to grammar, and was too exclusively limited to historical-literary works. Speaking ability was kept in the background and correct pronunciation was neglected. Such an antiquated method of teaching is now once and for all impossible. But what the grammatical method neglected, practical and correct use of the spoken language, the reform method has pushed to extremes. In making mastery of the spoken language the chief objective, the nature and function of secondary schools was overlooked, because such an objective under normal conditions of mass instruction is only attainable in a modest degree. The reform method requires not only a teacher who possesses a perfect mastery of the foreign language, but makes such claims on his nervous and physical energy as to entail premature exhaustion. Average pupils, not to mention weaker ones, do not justify the demands made by the oral use of the language; they soon weary, are overburdened and revolt. Early adherents of the new method, after their enthusiasm has been dashed by stern realities, have gradually broken away."[34]

## NOTES

1. M. A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee, *Modern Language Instruction in Canada*, Vol. I (The University of Toronto Press, 1928), p. 2.

2. Reprinted by Teubner as *Ars minor*, cf. H. S. T. Keil, *Grammatici Latini*, IV (Leipzig, 1864), 355.—Wilhelm Viëtor in *Die Methodik des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Leipzig: Teubner, 1902), p. 6, speaks of a *Donait françois* and of several *Donati* for English. An error against Donat became known as a *Donat-*

*schnitzer*, as the brothers Grimm report in their great dictionary. Donatus influenced the development of later Latin grammars (Lyly, 1515; Linacre, 1524; and many others) and the teaching of languages in general. Viëtor's *Methodik*, a tiny book of 56 pages, contains four lectures on the history of teaching foreign languages, beginning with Louis the German and the Oaths of Strassburg up to and including Viëtor's own recommendations.

3. Leopold Bahlsen, *The Teaching of Modern Languages*, translated by M. Blakemore Evans (Ginn & Company, 1905), p. 3.

4. Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, p. 3. But note Professor Robert Herndon Fife's remark: "Most writers on the history of teaching grammar present a distorted picture of the position which grammar occupied in the schools after the Renaissance . . . As I look at it the whole relationship of grammar to language teaching since the scholastic age has been a struggle against artificiality and the logical ballast of scholasticism. Ever since the beginnings of the humanistic reforms this struggle has gone on, and great progress has certainly been made. It is, however, still with us, in spite of all the efforts at reform" (Personal letter, May 4, 1938).

5. Caro Lynn, *A College Professor of the Renaissance* (The University of Chicago Press, 1937), p. 98.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 99.

7. Bahlsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 2 ff.

8. *The Essays of Michael Lord of Montaigne*, translated by John Florio (London: George Roulette and Sons, 1885), p. 78.

9. For illustrations of inductive and deductive presentation of grammar, see Peter Hagboldt, *Language Learning* (The University of Chicago Press, 1935), pp. 70–75.

10. C. H. Handschin in his article "Tests and Measurements in Modern Language Work," *Modern Language Journal* (Feb. 1920), pp. 217–225, does not approve of the use of pictures in learning vocabulary. Compare, however, Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 53 ff., who report "That totally contradictory results appear in the studies to date," and also see the interesting monograph *Selection and Application of Illustrative Material in Foreign Language Classes* by Otto Koischwitz (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932). On pp. 7–28, Koischwitz gives excellent arguments for the use of pictures.

11. Bahlsen, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

12. For a more detailed article on Comenius see Isaac L. Kandel and Paul Monroe in *A Cyclopedia of Education*. The Macmillan Company, 1928.

13. London, 1693. See paragraphs on Reading, French, Latin, etc.

14. Compare Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 10 ff.

15. Viëtor, *op. cit.*, pp. 19 ff.

16. *Ibid.*, p. 21.

17. *Ibid.*, pp. 23 ff.

18. Bahlsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 10 ff.; also Viëtor, *op. cit.*, pp. 23 ff.

19. E. W. Bagster-Collins, *The History of Modern Language Teaching in the United States*, reprinted from *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, Vol. XVII, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages (The Macmillan Company, 1930), 88 pp. See also Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 23 f.

20. xi + 228 pp. (Appleton and Company), translated from the French edition, Paris, 1867.

21. Claude Marcel, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

22. *Ibid.*, pp. 64 ff.

23. Compare "The Bond Reading Method" in Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 490–99.

24. Compare Peter Hagboldt, "The Work of Michael West," *Modern Language Journal* (March, 1938), pp. 411–19.

25. Paris, 1880 (third edition, 1897), translated by Howard Swan and Victor Bétis under the title *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages* (London, 1892).

26. R. Kron, *Die Methode Gouin oder das Seriensystem in Theorie und Praxis* (Marburg, 1895; zweite Auflage 1900), pp. 22 ff.

27. *Ibid.*, pp. 176 ff.

28. *Ibid.*, pp. 115–70.

29. For a detailed discussion see R. Kron, *op. cit.* For a short and concise account, consult Erwin Escher's *Essay on the Sources and the History of the Direct Method of Teaching Modern Languages until its Establishment in France and Germany* (University of Chicago unpublished Master's thesis, 1919), pp. 58 ff. Compare also *Report of the Committee of Twelve* (D. C. Heath and Company, 1900), pp. 20 ff.

30. Bahlsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 35 ff.; Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

31. "How much longer?" the first words of Cicero's First Oration Against Cataline. Viëtor's pamphlet appeared later as the *Dritte durch Anmerkungen erweiterte Auflage* (Leipzig, 1905), 52 pp.

32. Note the terms, "new," "reform," "phonetic," and "direct method"; the latter method has survived in name, and is still used in this country in a modified form.

33. Leipzig: 1895–1909, Vols. 1–4. For a discussion of these, see Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 73–79.

34. Buchanan and MacPhee, *op. cit.*, pp. 19 f.

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# A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF THE CONTROVERSY BETWEEN THE ANCIENT AND THE MODERN LANGUAGES IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Each generation of language teachers faces anew the problem of how to give to the values of language study the most desirable form, and how to adjust this form to the general educational requirements. It must be of concern to the language teacher, therefore, to know of the experiences of other generations, and to know their attitudes and opinions in dealing with this problem. To provide such information, this article explores the developments of the controversy between the ancient and the modern languages; for no other period has ever stated more clearly its doubts and expectations about foreign language study or struggled harder with its problems. Under the headings "Weight of Tradition" and "Progress of Reform" the main stages of the controversy will be discussed.

*Weight of Tradition:* Interest in the study of modern languages arose in America as the natural consequence of the prestige which European thought, learning, and literature had gradually gained early in the Nineteenth Century. A pursuit of such secular and, as it seemed, utilitarian study was, of course, contrary to the principles of classical education. It conflicted directly with the firmly established belief that only the study of the ancient languages could provide superior training and, thus, gave rise to a controversy which persisted until late in the century.

Although Latin had long since lost its importance as the international language of the civilized world and had gradually been replaced by English, French, and German, this change found only scant recognition in the college curriculum during the first half of the century. The struggle for recognition of the modern languages, however, started early and received its most important impulse from the educational efforts of Franklin and Jefferson. Franklin's experiences with foreign languages led him to the following consideration:

> We are told that it is proper to begin first with the Latin, and, having acquired that, it will be more easy to attain those modern languages which are derived from it; and yet we do not begin with the Greek in order more easily to acquire the Latin. . . . I would therefore offer it to the consideration of those who superintend the education of our youth, whether, since many of those who begin with the Latin quit the same after spending some years without having made any great proficiency . . . it would not have been better to have begun with French, proceeding to the Italian etc.; for, tho', after spending the same time, they should quit the study of languages and never arrive at Latin, they would, however, have acquired another tongue or two, that, being in modern use, might be serviceable to them in common life.[1]

Jefferson stated his reasons for supporting the modern languages in the Rockfish Report of 1818:

> The considerations which have governed the specification of languages to be taught by the professor of modern languages were, that the French is the language of general intercourse among nations, and as a depository of human science is unsurpassed by any other language, living or dead; that the Spanish is highly interesting to us, as the language spoken by so great a portion of the inhabitants of our continents. . . . The Italian abounds with works of superior order, valu-

> able for their matter, and still more distinguished as models of the finest taste in style and composition. And the German now stands in line with that of the most learned nations in richness of erudition and advance in the sciences.[2]

Franklin, in the Philadelphia Academy, and Jefferson, in William and Mary, and later in the University of Virginia, put these ideas into practice. With such influential men giving their support to the modern languages and opposing the exclusiveness of the classical course, agitation for reform became more articulate.[3] The pressure for curricular changes finally compelled some colleges to look for a solution, and in the third decade of the Nineteenth Century a number of colleges introduced so-called scientific or parallel courses in which the modern languages took the place of Greek and Latin. But the fact that these courses did not lead to the A.B. degree left a mark of inferiority upon them.

The classical course and the ancient languages lost none of their prestige during this period of experimentation. Due to poor instruction, lack of funds, and difficulties in organization, the results in the newly established courses often only reaffirmed the opinion of those who claimed superior values for the traditional course. Yet, the great number of attempted revisions indicated such a far spread dissatisfaction with existing methods in higher education that the need for a clarification of the objectives and advantages of classical education became urgent.

The opportunity for such a clarification arrived when George Ticknor, inspired by his observation and intimate knowledge of university life in Europe, attempted to revise the educational program of Harvard and exposed, in the course of his activities, the great weaknesses and deficiencies of the traditional American college. Ticknor had come to Harvard late in 1819 as professor of modern languages and had soon thereafter become aware of some weaknesses in the Harvard system:

> In about a year and a half, I began to find out that there was much idleness and dissipation in college, of which the resident teachers were ignorant, and I began to feel that $2000 per annum were spent nominally to teach the French and Spanish languages and literatures, when in fact no such thing was done.[4]

These first observations led Ticknor to a closer examination of the methods employed by Harvard and similar institutions, the results of which he published in his *Remarks* in 1825. Although Ticknor had set out to discuss in his publication the validity of some changes which Harvard had nominally adopted, his observations had such general application that they attained the character of a severe criticism of the methods and results in American higher education. Ticknor argued that neither the practices in teaching and examining, nor the limitations in subjects, nor the standards of discipline and morale could produce a high degree of scholarship. He recommended a wider choice of subjects, more freedom of election, and a method which could take into account the differences in individual rate of progress. Since the classical course placed much importance upon thorough instruction in the ancient languages, Ticknor frequently dwelt upon that phase of instruction. The severity of his estimate may be gauged from the following quotation:

> Who, in this country, by means here offered him, has been enabled to make himself a good Greek scholar? Who has been taught thoroughly to read, write, and speak Latin? Nay, who has been taught anything at our colleges with the thoroughness that will enable him to go safely and directly onward to distinction in the department he has thus entered without returning to lay anew the foundations for his success? [5]

In this manner, Ticknor accused the colleges of having failed to fulfill their function properly. He added a note of warning which is indicative of the spreading dissatisfaction with the then prevailing conditions in education:

> Our high places for education may easily accommodate themselves more wisely to the spirit and wants of the times in which we live. . . . New institutions are springing up, which, in the flexibility of their youth, will easily take the forms that are required of them, while the older establishments, if they suffer themselves to grow harder and harder in their ancient habits and systems will find . . . that they will be only the first victims of the spirit of improvement.[6]

With the nominal endorsement which Harvard had given to Ticknor's views, this criticism of the traditional college course carried considerable weight and became a challenge serious enough to force the conservative educators to defend their position.

The strongest reaction came from Yale College which, in 1827, appointed a committee to investigate the expediency of revising the curriculum. In a lengthy report, repudiating Ticknor's accusations and the wisdom of his recommendations, the committee expounded elaborately the principles of a classical education and upheld the value and necessity of the prescribed course of study. The arguments on which the writers of this report based their decision appear clearly in the part dealing with the position of ancient languages in education. According to the Yale report, the study of the classics "lays the foundation of correct taste," and "forms the most effectual discipline of the mental faculties," and "forms the best preparation for professional study." The writers of this report claimed that because of these qualities the ancient languages were best suited for a liberal education and should be retained as the center of the educational program. Modern languages by comparison seemed to offer infinitely less:

> The student who has limited himself to French, Italian, and Spanish, is very imperfectly prepared to commence a course for either divinity or law. He knows less

> of the literature of his own country than if he had been educated in the old method; the faculties of his mind have been brought into less vigorous exercise.[7]

The report, however, did not ignore entirely the claims of the modern languages, but "they should be studied in that way which leads most directly to a thorough understanding of it; and this way lies through the literature of the ancients." Modern languages should be studied as an accomplishment rather than as a necessary acquisition. Furthermore, the report expressed the fear that a course based on the modern languages would attract too many students who wished to avoid the more exacting work of the classical course and that, in this way, the college would become a means of lowering the standards of learning. But the fact that the writers of this report speak of "parents who do not wish their sons to study what seems to them of so little use" and admit that the study of the classics will be of more direct benefit to the lawyer and the preacher than to those entering other professions, seems to indicate that they must have felt themselves somewhat on the defensive.

This report was, no doubt, by the force of its arguments and the sphere of Yale's influence, a most effectual factor in preserving and maintaining the prestige of the classical languages and the traditional college course. But the very nature and existence of the report reveals how serious and challenging the demands for reform had become. The desire to justify the prominent place occupied by the classics prompted also the American Educational Society to take up the question of requiring candidates for the ministry to study the classics. By the request of the society, Professor M. Stuart published his views on the question which, in essence, corresponded to those of the Yale report. Opinions like these, reasserting the superior value of the classics, made it difficult to dislodge the ancient languages from their dominant position and discredited the claims of the modern languages.

A few other circumstances which may have contributed to the prejudice against the teaching of modern languages deserve attention. Handschin believes that the influx of French free thought, which had flooded the states, as a result of the teachings of Voltaire, Paine, and Volney, may have brought about some opposition to the French language.[8] This seems more than likely when one reads what a Harvard professor, at the turn of the century, had to say about France:

> Behold France converted by [the effects of infidel philosophy] into one great theatre of falsehood and perjury, of cruelty and ferocity, of robbery and piracy, of anarchy and despotism, of fornication and adultery, and of course reduced to a state of unspeakable degradation and misery.[9]

Certain theologians, according to Stuart, also looked upon the study of the German language with much distrust. Concerning his experience with the study of German, at about 1820, he wrote:

> It was said, among other things, that none but the Unitarians of Boston studied German, and this of itself was evidence enough that it must be fraught with evil. . . . Like the most conspicuous actors in the "Auto da Fe," I carried my own condemnation with me; and this was the label that was tacked on to me and hung out—GERMAN STUDY.[10]

The various objections and prejudices against the modern languages, combined with the traditional respect for classical learning checked the modest progress which the modern languages had made due to the efforts of such men as Franklin, Jefferson, and Ticknor. The inferiority of the modern languages and the superiority of the ancient languages seemed a proven fact and, up to the middle of the century, the question of foreign language study remained settled in favor of the ancient languages. Conditions in various colleges show the success of the reaffirmation of the classical principle in education. Most colleges allowed only a very limited time for the study of modern languages and it was often optional rather than required. Also at Harvard, the efforts of George Ticknor met with so much opposition that in 1835 he decided to resign. Greater pressure and more convincing evidence were needed before the conservatives would recognize the necessity of revisions.

*Progress of Reform:* In the developments outlined so far, the accompanying circumstances such as the close connection between school and church, the relatively small degree of competition, and the stability and religious character of social life weighed heavily in favor of the classical tradition. During the second half of the century these circumstances changed decisively. Social problems, and the growth of secular and scientific thought, bred new interests which were alien to the interests pursued in schools and colleges. Furthermore, the achievements of European universities, German in particular, made, by contrast, the inadequacies of the prevailing American system more apparent and thus constituted a compelling argument for revision. The force of these circumstances and their effect upon foreign language study show clearly in the experience of President Barnard. While professor at the University of Alabama and later at the University of Mississippi, Barnard took an active part in defending the classical curriculum. In a speech given in 1855, he considered the following principles as fundamental for a college curriculum:

> 1. The curriculum should embrace the number and variety of studies properly disciplinary, and the amount of each, which is necessary to an adequately thorough intellectual training. In the choice of these, the question, how far they are practical, is to be made entirely subordinate to the higher objects of education.

> 2. It should *not* embrace a greater amount than can be well and completely mastered, within the period of time over which it is spread.
>
> 3. The foregoing conditions being fulfilled, it may embrace other studies, chosen simply because of their value as subjects of knowledge.[11]

On the basis of these guiding principles Barnard thought it best to reject entirely from the regular course of study all subjects which were taught primarily for their practical value, as long as it was not possible to lengthen the period of time allotted to a college education or to increase the requirements for admission. He recommended, therefore, that modern languages be omitted in order to concentrate on the "eminently disciplinary and inestimably valuable study of Latin and Greek."

Later, as president of Mississippi and Columbia, Barnard must have felt the urgent need for reform. In 1866, in an address before the university convocation at Columbia, he reaffirmed his high esteem for the ancient learning, but admitted that the time had come when learning must abandon its claims to an absolute monopoly of education.[12] He expressed doubts as to the success of the traditional system of education in opening to the students the intellectual treasures which are locked up in the languages of Greece and Rome. As measures of reform, he advised a substitution of modern languages for the ancient languages in the preparatory courses and a postponement of the study of Latin and Greek until college. It is also interesting to note in this address that Barnard realized that his proposal would be considered as dangerous heresy by the champions of classical scholarship. When, at about this time, Harvard put French and German into the required curriculum and made Greek and Latin electives, and new colleges with a progressive curriculum, such as Cornell and Michigan, became more prominent, Barnard thought it expedient to accept the elective system.

In the language controversy at this period, the opposing sides are well represented by Cornell and Yale. President A. D. White of Cornell stated:

> It is impossible to find a reason why a man should be made a Bachelor of Arts for good studies in Cicero and Tacitus and Thucydides and Sophocles which does not equally prove that he ought to have the same distinction for good studies in Montesquieu and Corneille, and Goethe and Schiller, and Dante and Shakespeare.[13]

He took the position that, for the purposes of discipline and culture, the study of French and German classics is as efficient as the study of Greek and Latin, and that an equivalent knowledge of either of the two should lead to the same college honors.

Professor Noah Porter of Yale College, later Yale's president, took up the challenge in his article "The American Colleges and the American

Public."[14] On the ground that language is "thought made visible" and that most of the intellectual relations of either things or thought can only be discerned by an attention to, and apprehension of, the relation of words, he contended that language study is the most efficient instrument of discipline. He gave decided preference to the ancient languages not because they are the root of all modern literature and modern languages, not because the terminology of modern science has been derived from these languages, not because Greek is the original language of the *New Testament*, but because modern languages and modern literature can only convey modern thought—thought with which the student is conversant—whereas the ancient languages and their literature acquaint the student with a world which is different from the modern period. He claimed that the student will profit more by the contrast between the self-cultured pagan and the self-denying Christian, between the idolator of a country and state and the worshipper of the Father and the Redeemer, than by increasing his knowledge of modern thought. Porter conceded that modern languages had become indispensable for the scholar, but he believed that most schools had provided for that necessity by giving instruction in either the regular or the optional course.

It would be repetitious to describe in detail the many articles and addresses which defended or attacked the classics.[15] As far as modern languages were concerned, the main point at issue stands out clearly in the controversy between White and Porter. White accepted modern languages as of equal value with the ancient languages. Porter conceded them a certain utilitarian value but otherwise considered them inferior. The question, consequently, was no longer whether modern languages should be taught, but whether modern languages could be accepted on a parity with the ancient languages. In his address, "What is a Liberal Education?" President Eliot of Harvard University took a firm stand on this question:

> The next subjects for which I claim a position of academic equality with Greek, Latin, and mathematics are French and German. This claim rests not on the usefulness of these languages to couriers, tourists, commercial travelers, and not on their merit as languages, but on the magnitude and worth of their literatures, and the unquestionable fact that facility in reading these languages is absolutely indispensable to a scholar, whatever may be his department of studies. . . . I urge no utilitarian argument, but rest the claims of French and German for admission to complete academic equality on the copiousness and merit of the literatures and the indispensableness of the language to all scholars.[16]

The frequent attacks that were aimed at Eliot and his opinion added little of new value, but they show to what tensity the controversy had risen.[17]

The increasing recognition which the modern languages found can be gauged by the "Fetish Controversy." C. F. Adams, in his *A College Fetich,* after pointing out how little his ancestors and he himself had benefited by devoting the better part of their school training to the ancient languages, wrote: "Whether viewed as a thing of use, as an accomplishment, as a source of pleasure, or as mental training, I would rather, myself, be familiar with the German tongue and its literature than be equally familiar with Greek."[18] D. H. Chamberlain, in his *Not a "College Fetish,"* disagreed with Adams' estimate of the ancient languages and the Greek in particular, but he admitted that "the literatures of France and Germany have a value which can hardly be over-estimated, that the modern languages are apt to be under-valued . . . and that more space can be allowed them without injury to the classical course."[19]

Varying somewhat in specific emphasis, the supporters of the modern languages, in general, maintained that modern languages could or should be studied not merely as the handmaid of science, but that they could and must be studied on their own merit. With prominent educators such as White of Cornell, Eliot of Harvard, and Gilman of Johns Hopkins[20] advocating the study of modern languages in a vigorous way, the tide was definitely changing. Even Yale, which so far had remained rather conservative, decided, in 1885, to require French and German for admission and prescribed the study of these languages for the sophomores and two years later for the freshmen also. In many other colleges the modern languages made similar progress and, as Professor Brandt of Hamilton College wrote in 1888, "The conflict that has taken place is abating."[21]

The question, however, was not entirely settled. In many instances the smaller colleges refused to accept the modern languages as full substitutes for Greek or Latin in either the entrance or the graduation requirements. President Hyde of Bowdoin College adhered to this conservative position. In his inaugural address of 1886, he stated that he would wait for more emphatic demands before he would grant the A.B. degree to any man who had not studied Greek and Latin.[22]

The influence of Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and other prominent universities which had accepted modern languages on a more equal basis altered this situation gradually. Also, the activities of the Modern Language Association helped much in establishing the modern languages as a regular part of the preparatory school program and thereby exerted a considerable pressure upon the conservative colleges. In numerous articles, modern language teachers argued for equality or even recommended that the study of the modern language should precede that of the ancient languages.[23] The situation at the beginning of the Twentieth

Century bears witness to the fact that they had met with success. Thus, S. G. Ashmore, professor of Latin in Union College, contemplating the developments of the last century, wrote: "In view of the general situation, it is natural to ask whether Latin and Greek have any right at all to a place in the school curriculum, and what that place may be, if any exist."[24]

*Conclusion:* For many years modern languages along with other newcomers held a prominent place in the curriculum of our schools and colleges. Institutions, however, are static by nature and tend to gain easily in their formal aspects at the expense of their functional qualities. Whenever this tendency asserts itself too strongly in educational institutions and the form and content of the courses become formalized, the whole educational process loses in effectiveness, and will provoke criticism and give cause for changes. It was such a situation that contributed much to the decline of the classical course and made the changes that occurred not only possible but necessary. Today, when hostile forces assail language study and other liberal arts subjects and reproach them with being irrelevant or even obstructive to the salient interests of our times, we have reason to wonder whether the same tendency has not again reached dangerous proportions which must be counteracted. The move to shorten the liberal arts course, the wider adoption of comprehensive examinations, even the war-born measure of acceleration, and many other less publicized plans and revisions, indicate a dissatisfaction with the prevailing methods and standards and a willingness to experiment with new ones.

In language study the concern of the teacher over decreasing enrollments, meager accomplishments, and general indifference toward the subject proves sufficiently that the traditional requirement of two or three years of language study has not achieved satisfactory results. If we consider the requirement sound in itself and wish to maintain it, the achievements must be such as to warrant its existence. This means that language study, if required, must lead to a useable skill and not only to course attendance. It cannot be said that the gravest weakness here lies in our instructional facilities, for much effort and thought have been spent to improve our methods and to free our instruction of unnecessary bulk by streamlining our grammars, grading our texts, compiling idiom and frequency lists, etc. It is, however, difficult to realize the full value of these improvements when we operate under a system of requirements which, through abuse and misplaced economy, has lost its vitality and has become more formal than functional. These traditional requirements with their standards of credit hours and grades have unfortunately developed into a system of time serving which makes it possible to circumvent the objective of the requirement to such a degree that it can no longer offer a strong challenge or incentive to the average student. It would be futile to clamor for an expansion of the time limit. It seems, on the contrary, more desirable to abandon the time limit completely and replace it by requirements of proficiency which will justly demand more time of the slow and dilatory student than of the able and industrious one.

## NOTES

1. John Bigelow, *The Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin* (New York: Putnam's Son, 1887). Above quotation of the year 1784.

2. Roy J. Honeywell, *The Educational Work of Thomas Jefferson* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1931), pp. 254 f.

3. Much attention was created by the following attacks on classical learning: (a) *Observation on the Study of the Latin and Greek Languages*, published late in the Eighteenth Century by Benjamin Rush, famous Philadelphia physician; (b) A number of anonymous articles which appeared in 1824 in the *Boston Sentinel;* (c) *Character and Objects of Science* by Thomas S. Grimke, 1827.

4. George S. Hillard, *Life, Letters and Journals of George Ticknor* (Boston: James R. Osgood and Company, 1877). I, 355.

5. George Ticknor, *Remarks on Changes Lately Proposed or Adopted* (Cumming, Hillard, 1825), p. 45.

6. *Op. cit.*, p. 46.

7. *Reports on the Course of Instruction in Yale College*, by a Committee of the Corporation (New Haven: Hezekiah Howe, 1830), p. 38.

8. Cf. C. H. Handschin, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States* (United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 3; Washington, 1913), p. 19.

9. David Tappan, *Discourse Delivered in the Chapel of Harvard College* (Boston: Manning & Loring, 1798).

10. M. Stuart, "The Study of the German Language," *Christian Review*, September, 1841, p. 456.

11. F. A. P. Barnard, *Improvements Practicable in American Colleges* (Hartford: F. C. Brownell, 1856), pp. 9 f.

12. F. A. P. Barnard, "Early Mental Training and the Studies Best Fitted for It," in E. L. Youmans, *The Culture Demanded by Modern Life.* (New York: Appleton, 1867).

13. Quoted from a letter by A. D. White to the *New York Tribune*, March 16, 1868.

14. Noah Porter, "The American Colleges and the American Public," in the *New Englander* (January, 1869), pp. 69–114.

15. Some of the better known attacks on the classics were published in collected form by E. L. Youmans in *The Culture Demanded by a New Life* (New York: Appleton, 1867). This challenge was promptly taken up by a collection of articles in defense of the classics by S. H. Taylor in *Classical Study: Its Value Illustrated* (Andover: Warren F. Draper, 1870).

16. C. W. Eliot, "What is a Liberal Education?" contained in collected essays

and addresses entitled *Educational Reform* (New York: Century, 1898), pp. 101–103. This paper was first read in 1884.

17. Best known attacks on Eliot are: (a) James McCosh, *New Departures in College Education* (Charles Scribner's Sons: New York, 1885); (b) E. F. West, *A Review of President Eliot's Report on Elective Studies* (New York, 1886); (c) D. H. Chamberlain, "The Elective Policy," *New Englander* (May, 1886), pp. 459–461.

18. C. F. Adams, *A College Fetich* (Boston: Lee & Shepherd, 1883), page 37.

19. D. H. Chamberlain, *Not a "College Fetish"* (Boston: Willard Small, 1884), pp. 46 f.

20. President Gilman expressed his support for the modern languages in "Is It Worth-while to Uphold Any Longer the Idea of A Liberal Education?" *Educational Review*, III (1892), p. 117.

21. H. C. G. Brandt, *Should the Elements of French and German Be Required for Admission to All Colleges?* University of the State of New York, 26th Convocation, 1888.

22. W. DeW. Hyde, *Addresses at the Inauguration of the Rev. William De Witt Hyde as President of Bowdoin College* (Brunswick, Maine, 1886), pp. 22–41.

23. Among such articles are: (a) E. S. Joynes, *The Position of Modern Languages in Higher Education* (Nat. Ed. Association, 1876), reprinted by the M.L.A., 1887; (b) J. K. Newton, *A Plea for a Liberal Education* (Modern Language Series, 1885); (c) G. F. Comfort, *Modern Languages in Education* (Syracuse, 1886); (d) H. C. G. Brandt, *op. cit.*

24. S. G. Ashmore, *The Classics and Modern Training* (New York: Putnam, 1905), p. 2.

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# GEORGE TICKNOR

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As an American student in Europe, as a representative of the best in American culture in contact with European leaders, as one of our first scholars of international reputation in the modern humanities, as our first great Hispanist, as a progressive college professor, as a friend of popular education, and as an advocate and worker for the development of public libraries, George Ticknor was far in advance of most of his generation. In some instances he was too far in advance, notably in the reforms in teaching which he was responsible for introducing into Harvard College, at least one of which, known as "sectioning students by ability," has been regarded as novel and revolutionary even in our own times. His ideas on the teaching of modern foreign languages, especially, are amazingly in accord with the views of many teachers of the present day.

George Ticknor was born in Boston on August 1, 1791 and died there on January 26, 1871. Of his long life of nearly eighty years only eleven years, exclusive of occasional trips and vacations, were spent elsewhere—two years at Dartmouth College and nine years in Europe. Of his European trips, the first, 1815–19, was devoted to study and travel, at first for general education purposes and after 1816 in definite preparation for the Smith Professorship at Harvard. Seventeen months of this period were spent at Göttingen. The second European journey, 1835–38, was undertaken following the death of his little son and his resignation of the Harvard professorship. His third visit to Europe, 1856–57, was largely in the interest of the Boston Public Library.

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Ticknor's acceptance in 1816 of the newly established Smith Professorship of the French and Spanish Languages and Literatures [1] at Harvard gave a definite object to his studies, in the course of which he spent much time in France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. He realized that he had an unusual opportunity to get at the original materials for the history of Spanish literature, and did so with all the directness of a consecrated soul. When he returned to Boston to take up his duties at Harvard, he was undoubtedly adequately prepared in his chosen field—indeed, he was probably the only man so broadly equipped in America.

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With 1819 the preparatory phase of Ticknor's career ended and the active phase began. His first task was to organize the work on which he had entered. Out of this developed, on the practical teaching side, his theories on instruction in the modern foreign languages, which found concrete expression in the *Lecture on the Best Methods of Teaching the Living Languages*,[2] delivered in 1832; and, on the scholarly side, his syllabus [3] of the history of Spanish literature, the framework as it were of his later masterpiece, his monumental *History of Spanish Literature*.[4]

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In discussing the teaching of modern foreign languages Ticknor proves that he was a practical teacher as well as a sound theorist, as is clearly indicated in his *Lecture on the Best Methods of Teaching the Living Languages*. Throughout the *Lecture* the "living" aspect of languages is stressed again and again. His first sentence is a confession of faith: "The most important characteristic of a living language—the attribute in which resides its essential power and value—is, that it is a spoken one. . . ." The easiest and best method to acquire a language, he says, is for students to "reside where it is constantly spoken," and where it should be "the minister to their hourly wants, and the medium of their constant intercourse"; but since this is impossible except for the few, we must, "while still endeavoring to teach it as a living and spoken language . . . resort to means somewhat more artificial and indirect"—"the best method within our power at home."

But "there is no *one* mode of teaching languages," he tells us, applicable "to persons of all the different ages and different degrees of preparation who present themselves to be taught." Accordingly, it is the teacher's duty, and the "highest exercise of his skill, to select from the different systems in use what may be most appropriate to the whole class of pupils submitted to his care." Moreover, he must "accommodate and arrange what he has thus selected . . . to the individual capacities, dispositions, and wants of each." Ticknor does not agree with those extremists who believe that *all* learners should acquire a foreign language as a child learns his mother-tongue, for "it is plain," he says, "that a method adapted to children seven or eight years old would be altogether unsuited to persons in the maturity of their faculties." Again cautioning his hearers to remember that "nothing can be done wisely, which has not a constant reference to the different classes, ages, and characters of the pupils" he presents a tri-partite program of instruction: first, for little children; second, for adolescents—"those between the ages of thirteen or fourteen and seventeen or eighteen"; and third, for "those who have already reached the full maturity of their minds." And while he advocates an oral approach and inductive teaching of grammar for the other stages of instruction, these mature persons, whose "reasoning faculties are fully developed," will, he says, "choose to learn by the analysis of particulars from generals, rather than by the induction of generals from particulars."

Emphasis on the living language without making the oral approach a fetich; an eclectic method; frank acceptance of individual differences among pupils; techniques adjusted to different age-levels: what could be sounder?

These are only a few instances of Ticknor's educational good sense. I shall mention here only one other, which concerns the study of literature. Great literature, he says, is written by authors "in whom the peculiar genius of their respective languages stands forth in the boldest relief; those in whom the distinctive features of the national temper and character are most prominent; those, in short, who come to us fresh from the feelings and attributes of the mass of the people they represent

**and full of the peculiarities of thought, idiom, and expression which separate that people from all others, and constitute them a distinct portion of mankind." It is this, he says, that makes it necessary to read them in the original rather than in translation—a blow to a favorite but basically unsound idea of some present-day "educators" who themselves know no foreign literature.[5] "That such authors cannot be understood without some knowledge of the popular feeling and colloquial idiom with which their minds have been nourished and of which their works are full," he adds, "hardly needs to be urged or made more apparent." Then he proves his case by citing English authors—Shakespeare, Spenser, Chaucer, among others; Spanish drama, the Spanish ballads, and *Don Quixote;* Goethe, Schiller, and Tieck; La Fontaine and Molière; Dante and Alfieri.**

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## NOTES

1. The history of the Smith Professorship forms of course an important part of the story of American scholarship. "In 1907 the Smith Professorship of the French and Spanish Languages, one of the outstanding chairs at Harvard and one that has enjoyed great distinction in the annals of American scholarship and letters, was filled by the appointment of Professor Ford. This chair, established in 1816, had been held by three famous American men of letters: George Ticknor, from 1819 to 1835; Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, from 1836 to 1854; and James Russell Lowell, from 1854 to 1891 (the last five years as professor emeritus). In his *And Gladly Teach*, Professor Bliss Perry gives an interesting account of the steps leading to the filling of the Smith Professorship in 1907, referring to Professor Ford as 'that brilliant young scholar, J. D. M. Ford.' Mr. Ford's selection by President Eliot for promotion to this important post at so early an age gave rise to much comment at the time; and the intervening years have only confirmed the high estimate placed upon Ford's character and capacity by President Eliot."—From "J. D. M. Ford," by Henry Grattan Doyle, in the Harvard Tercentenary Number of *Hispania*, vol. xix, no. 2 (May, 1936), pp. 153–162.

2. Boston: Carter, Hendee and Co., 1833. Copies of the *Lecture* apparently are now scarce. The Library of Congress has none, and the only copies listed in the "Union List" at the Library of Congress are those in the Harvard University Library, the New York Public Library, and the Library of the University of Illinois. There is a copy, I believe, in the Cornell University Library also. There must be others, of course, which are not included in the "Union List."

3. *Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on the History and Criticism of Spanish Literature.* Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard and Metcalf, 1823.

4. New York: Harper and Bros., 3 vols., 1849. (An English edition was brought out at the same time in London by John Murray.) Second edition. New York: Harper and Bros., 1854. Third edition, corrected and enlarged. Boston:

Ticknor and Fields, 1863. Fourth edition, corrected and enlarged. Boston: James R. Osgood and Co., 1872. Fifth edition. Boston: Houghton, Osgood and Co., 1879. Sixth edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Co., 1891. Foreign editions: *Historia de la literatura española.* Traducida al castellano, con adiciones y notas críticas, por D. Pascual de Gayangos y D. Enrique de Vedia. Madrid: Rivadeneyra, 1851–56. (4 vols.) *Histoire de la littérature espagnole.* Traduite de l'anglais en français . . . avec les notes et additions des commentateurs espagnoles D. Pascal de Gayangos et D. Henri de Vedia, par J.-G. Magnabal. Paris: A. Durand (Hachette et Cie.), 1864–72. (3 vols.) *Geschichte der schönen Literatur in Spanien.* Deutsch mit Zusätzen herausgegeben von Nikolaus Heinrich Julius. Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1867. (2 vols.)

5. This fallacy, repeated *ad nauseam* by opponents of the teaching of modern foreign languages, is usually bolstered up by statements such as: "Everything worth while in foreign literatures is available in English translations"; or, "Everything of importance published abroad is promptly translated into English." Similar statements, in spite of their self-evident absurdity, are solemnly made from time to time by "authorities" who apparently have no first-hand knowledge either of foreign literatures or of available English translations. (This theory, by the way, is refuted by the dean of a School of Education, Dean Raymond A. Schwegler of the University of Kansas, in an article in the *Modern Language Journal* for October, 1937, entitled "A Psychologist Looks at Modern Foreign Language Teaching.") The handicaps with respect to the modern foreign languages of most of the authors of these pronouncements are paralleled with respect to the Classics by Christopher North's "Ettrick Shepherd" in the *Noctes Ambrosianae.* "I canna read Greek," said the Shepherd, "*except in a Latin translation done into English.*"

## THE FOUNDING OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

Charles H. Handschin
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[From *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States,* Washington, 1913, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1913, No. 3.]

(pp. 40–43) The need of an organization for teachers of the modern languages in secondary and higher schools began to be felt in the seventies. . . . Up to 1883, when the Modern Language Association was organized, many of the teachers of modern languages had been members of the American Philological Association. However, there was a growing feeling that this organization did not meet their needs.

There were several signs of the times which encouraged the modern language men, among them Prof. Joynes's paper read before the National Education Association, . . . and the celebrated Phi Beta Kappa address of Charles Francis Adams at the Harvard commencement in 1883, in which he protested against the fetich of Greek in our schools.

At the instance of certain professors of Johns Hopkins University, a call for a meeting of the teachers of modern languages was issued, to be held at Columbia University, at the Christmas season 1883. Thirty-two men attended the meeting, organized the Modern Language Association of America, read papers, and appointed a committee to investigate the condition of instruction of modern languages in American colleges. The object of this organization is, as the constitution states, "the advancement of the study of modern languages and their literatures." The historian of the association recounts the various dangers and tests which the organization passed through in its early years,[1] as follows: The foreign fencing master and dancing master (i.e. the ubiquitous, unscholarly native teacher who taught the languages merely as an accomplishment); the natural scientists, who wished to make of modern language a handmaid to natural science; the advocates of catchy methods of instruction; and the extreme philological tendency.

However, the association flourished and became a powerful influence in American education. If it is true that "the chief change in the last 40 years in our educational system has been the ever-growing importance of modern language teaching,"[2] then the importance of the Modern Language Association is inestimable. And if the statement must needs be modified, the association nevertheless is of national importance and one of the great factors educationally in the United States.

* * * * *

The first notable labor of the association was to collect in two comprehensive reports data on "The present condition of instruction in modern languages in American colleges" in 1884. This investigation, which extended to the whole country, excepting the South, was the first of its kind. . . .

Another important report[3] was read at the meeting of the association in 1884. It shows that the modern languages received but scant attention in the colleges of the South before the Civil War. . . .

The labors of the association, and they were manifold, are recorded in the volumes of the Publications.[4] They include discussions of pedagogical subjects as well as scholarly treatises. As a supplement to the work of the association, Modern Language Notes was founded by Prof. Elliott.[5]

## NOTES

1. Modern Language Association. *Proceedings*, 1903, pp. xii ff.
2. *Ibid.*, 1901, pp. 77 ff.
3. Prepared by Prof. E. S. Joynes.
4. Quarterly, Cambridge, 1884 to date.
5. Baltimore, 1886 to date.

# HISTORY OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE

CALVIN THOMAS, *et al.*
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[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America*, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1900. Submitted at a meeting of the Association held in Dec. 1898 at Charlottesville, Va.]

(pp. 1–6) It will be remembered that the appointment of the committee grew out of a request of the National Educational Association, which has for some time been endeavoring to bring about a better regulation of secondary instruction in the subjects usually required for admission to American colleges. In pursuing this laudable undertaking the National Educational Association very properly saw fit to ask for the advice of various professional bodies, our own among the number. In particular, it was desired that we draw up model preparatory courses in French and German and make recommendations concerning the practical management of these courses. The matter was brought to the attention of both branches of this association at the sessions of 1896, and we were asked to take appropriate action. As the business appeared to be of very great importance, it was thought best to turn it over to a large committee having a somewhat general mandate to investigate and report. The resolution under which the committee was appointed reads as follows:

> That a committee of twelve be appointed: (a) To consider the position of the modern languages in secondary education; (b) to examine into and make recommendations upon methods of instruction, the training of teachers, and such other questions connected with the teaching of the modern languages in the secondary schools and the colleges as in the judgment of the committee may require consideration.

That this committee shall consist of the present president of the association, Prof. Calvin Thomas, as chairman, and eleven other members of the association, to be named by him.

That the association hereby refers to this committee the request of a committee of the National Educational Association for coöperation in the consideration of the subject of college entrance examinations in French and German.

In pursuance of this resolution the committee was made up early in the year 1897, and began its work by preparing a circular, which was sent out to some 2,500 teachers. The object of the circular was to obtain information with regard to the present status of secondary instruction in French and German in the country at large, and also to elicit opinions with respect to a number of more or less debatable questions which, as was thought, would be likely to arise in the course of the committee's deliberations. Several hundred replies were received and collated, and the information thus obtained was laid before the committee at a session held in Philadelphia one year ago. We have not thought it wise to cumber this report, which will be long enough at the best, with a detailed recital of these statistics. Suffice it to say that, taken as a whole, they give us a picture of somewhat chaotic and bewildering conditions. Under various names our secondary schools have a large number of courses in which French and German figure as prominent or as subordinate subjects of instruction; courses of one, two, three and four or more years; courses providing for two, three, four, or five recitations a week, and for recitation periods ranging from twenty-five to sixty minutes. And when we come to the colleges and higher scientific schools the requirements for admission are hardly less multifarious. Various bachelors' degrees are conferred, and for admission to the courses leading to these degrees French and German figure variously, according as to the modern language is offered in addition to the Latin and Greek of the classical preparatory course, or in place of Greek, or as the main linguistic study. Some of the colleges have also an elementary and an advanced requirement, with options variously managed.

Upon surveying the intricate problem thus presented, the members of the committee perceived at once that any report which they might make, if it was to be really useful, must be adapted, so far as is practicable, to the conditions as they are. It was not for us to recommend radical changes in the American system, or lack of system, which has grown up in a natural way and must work out its own destiny. It was not for us to attempt to decide which of the various competing courses is the best course, or to antagonize any particular study. Nor could we assume to dictate to the colleges just how much knowledge of French or German, or both, they shall demand for admission to this, that, or the other undergraduate course. The colleges would certainly not consent to any surrender of their liberty to regulate their requirements in their own way. Most important of all, it was not for us to propose any arrangements which could be taken to imply that secondary instruction in French and German exists only for the sake of preparation for college. The great majority of those studying the modern languages do not go to college at all. Our secondary education must be recognized as having its own function, its own aims and ideals. In the great mass of the schools those who are preparing for college receive instruction in the same classes with those who are not preparing for college. And this must always be so. These considerations seemed to indicate that the proper line for the committee to pursue was as follows:

To describe a certain number of grades of preparatory instruction, corresponding to courses of different length; to define these grades as clearly as possible in terms of time and work and aim, and to make a few practical recommendations with regard to the management of the instruction—recommendations having as their sole object the educational benefit of the pupil. The members of the committee are naturally of the opinion that the study of a modern language in school has a distinct educational value of its own. The teacher's problem is to realize this value from the study. Whether the learner is going to college or not makes no difference, save as this consideration affects the amount of time he can devote to the modern language while preparing himself in the other necessary subjects. If such courses could be wisely drawn up, and if then they were to be recommended to the country upon the combined authority of the Modern Language Association and the National Educational Association, it would seem reasonable to expect them soon to become the national norm of secondary instruction in the modern languages. It also seems reasonable to expect that the colleges will be not only willing but glad to adopt the practice of stating their requirements in terms of the national grades. Such a mutual understanding between the colleges and the secondary schools should do much to bring a definitely understood order out of our existing chaos.

Having come a year ago to this general conclusion as to what could and should be done, the committee saw that it would be impossible to submit a satisfactory final report at the Philadelphia meeting. There were various matters that required further study. First, there was the question as to how many grades were really needed—whether two, or three, or more. Then there was the question of French and German in the lower school grades. This subject, it is true, had not been expressly committed to us; but it was known that many private schools, and not a few of our best public schools, already provide instruction in French or German in grades below the high school. It was also known that many good teachers strongly advocate this idea. But if it is wise to begin a modern language some time before the high school is reached, and if this practice is to be extended and to become more and more a part of our national system, it is evident that the modern-language work of the secondary schools must be more or less affected. Again, there was the perplexing question of method.

In view of the sharp differences of opinion and of practice known to exist among teachers, the committee thought it best, before undertaking to advise teachers how to teach, to reëxamine the whole matter in the light of experience and in the light of recent contributions to the subject, to the end that their final recommendations might be as free as possible from any vagaries of personal prejudice. Finally, there was the large task of drawing up the proposed courses and formulating the recommendations. Seeing all this work ahead, the committee decided, at the Philadelphia session, to report progress, ask for additional time and money, and, if this request should be granted, to appoint a number of sub-committees, whose task it should be to inquire into and report upon the various questions just enumerated. The request was granted and the committee adjourned after passing unanimously a single resolution, the import of which will be apparent from what was said a little while ago. The resolution was to the effect that secondary instruction in French and German should not be differentiated according as the pupil is, or is not, preparing for college.

During the first half of the year 1898 the sub-committees worked at their several tasks by means of circulars and correspondence. Early in November a three day session of the general committee was held in New York City. The meeting was attended by ten of the twelve members, two being unavoidably absent. The reports of the various sub-committees were received and discussed, together with other matters germane to the committee's general task. As a result of the three days' discussion, the substance of the following report was agreed upon. Since the November meeting the report, as below drawn up, has been submitted to the members of the committee, and, after some further interchange of views by mail, has been agreed to by them unanimously.

# HISTORY OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

CHARLES H. HANDSCHIN
*Miami University*

[From *MLJ*, XXV, 4, Jan. 1941, 248–251.]

We had been making some progress in modern language teaching in the United States since the turn of the century. The most significant single agency in this had been The Modern Language Association of America. Since its founding in 1883, it had held annually at its general meeting a group meeting for the discussion of the pedagogical features of modern language teaching. These discussions, the published addresses, and finally the great report of its committee of twelve published in 1898, after several years of study and survey of the modern language standards and facilities in this country, form a great milestone in the growth of modern languages as a study in our curricula.

The New England Modern Language Association with purely pedagogical purposes was next founded in 1903, and its Bulletin became the rallying ground for what was perhaps the most coherent and best trained group of modern language teachers. For teaching standards in general were more uniform there than in many other parts of the country.

Now there came years of more rapid progress in matters of training and certification of teachers and in school facilities, starting on the Atlantic seaboard and extending westward. And so modern language teacher-training improved along with that of other teachers.

Also, in these early years of the century European travel and a stay in the countries whose languages they taught became commoner for modern language teachers. Universities and colleges now instituted courses in methods of teaching modern languages which were not thin discussions of principles of teaching, but included such things as phonetics, bibliography, *realia*, observation, and practice teaching, and review of grammar from the teaching point of view, etc.

We became infected now with the reform in methods of teaching modern languages as these had found expression in the direct method in France and the Reform method in Germany. There remained no doubt that better achievement in modern language instruction was being attained in French and German schools. And so we embarked also upon a semi-direct method or rather we used the foreign language to a lesser or greater extent in our instruction wherever teachers, facilities, and time allotted permitted.

In the years up to 1915 there was, therefore, considerable progress in our branch of study. Associations of modern language teachers were formed in New York State and in the Middle States and Maryland, and later in New Jersey, and less well defined and permanent groups elsewhere, especially in the Middle West. As these associates crystallized, the Modern Language Association discontinued its pedagogical sessions (1911).

Now there was no receptacle for articles and contributions to modern language teaching except the *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik* (since 1899). A few articles found their way into secondary school journals and other periodicals. All around, modern language teachers were feeling the need of an organ of their own, in which the work of all modern language teachers might head up, especially since we felt that we should teach language as Americans and that we needed to hang together in a common cause for the good of our schools and our growing youth.

By 1915 three associations in the east: The New England, The New York State, and the Middle States and Maryland had combined to form a federation of modern language associations. Eight representatives of this federation and eight from the Central West and South Association were delegated to meet in Cleveland at the time of the sessions of the Modern Language Association at the holiday recess, 1915, to take steps to form a national federation and to found an official organ for the same.

At this meeting, genial-mannered Professor A. G. Canfield was elected chairman and he served as president of the temporary organization up to the founding of the National Federation. C. H. Handschin was elected secretary-treasurer. One of the first items of business was the founding of a journal. The plan was worked out and adopted to publish the *Modern Language Journal*, beginning October, 1916. We delegates pledged ourselves personally a guarantee fund for getting the *Journal* under way. As editor we chose E. W. Bagster-Collins, and along with him a staff of associates. The manner in which editors were to be chosen and rotated as between East and West and as between the French, German, and Spanish groups was laid down and voted. A tentative form for an executive committee was also agreed upon. The entire body of resolutions, since then known as *The Cleveland Agreement*, was later ratified by the constituent associations and holds today, parts of it without ever having been put into the constitution or by-laws.

In the meantime the secretary was to undertake to organize or bring together new groups wherever there might be opportunity. The various local and regional associations met annually as a rule, but a general meeting of the National Federation was not planned, except in so far as we would attempt to hold a meeting in connection with the N.E.A. each summer, the association on whose territory the N.E.A. met to be asked to furnish the program for such meeting.

We must recall that these were war years. Most of our associations omitted their meeting in 1917 altogether. In the summer of 1918, however, a national meeting was held at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and its discussions and subsequent printed papers helped to keep modern language teaching before the public, for we must remember that German had been all but eclipsed in the secondary schools and enrolments as a whole in the other languages had failed to keep step with the growing enrolments in secondary schools.

The *Modern Language Journal* had now two years of successful work behind it. It had just broken even financially, for war time and high prices had proved a considerable handicap for it. In May, 1919, the Modern Language Association of the Central West and South—which jaw-breaker the writer as its secretary abbreviated to M.L.T.—called for a permanent form for the national federation. A constitution had, so far, not been written, the Cleveland Agreement functioning as the temporary law up to this time. A tentative draft of a constitution was now worked out by correspondence between committees representing the constituent associations. This was adopted by the Eastern Association, January 1919, by the Western Association with a minor change in May 1919, and was subsequently ratified by all the constituent associations individually.

The executive committee, delegated by the associations, met in Milwaukee, June 1919, in connection with the N.E.A. At this meeting the M.L.T. furnished the modern language program. Here in Milwaukee the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers was organized with the judicious and lovable W. B. Snow, of the Boston schools, as president; E. W. Olmsted as vice president, and C. H. Handschin as secretary-treasurer. Other executive committee members were E. W. Bagster-Collins, *ex officio*; A. Busse, E. F. Hauch, L. A. Roux, A. R. Hohlfeld, and W. A. Nitze.

The Federation was now a going concern. Volume IV of the *Journal* states that it is now being published by the National Federation. Volume V, No. 3, shows the following further constituent associations: Wisconsin, Michigan, Kansas, Indiana, Missouri, Virginia, Oklahoma, Chicago Society of Romance Teachers, and Southern California. In volume VI, No. 5, the following associations are listed as having been added: Texas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Iowa. A few of these have disintegrated, one or two more have been added, but by and large, the work of the organization had been done by this time.

A further feature of the organizational work was the affiliation of the A.A.T.S. in 1923, and of the A.A.T.F. and A.A.T.G. in the following year. While these groups felt and feel that they need their special meetings and official organs, they were heartily agreeable to affiliating with the Federation, having one representative each on its Executive Committee, and in this way cooperating in heading up the entire modern language work in a single organization which is able to speak for and represent the entire profession.

Mr. Handschin resigned as secretary-treasurer in 1925, was asked by the Executive Committee to become managing editor of the *Journal*, declined, but accepted the office of business manager, chiefly to attempt the accumulation of a reserve fund for the Federation and the *Journal*. He actually saved three thousand dollars in his four year term, which with interest and later additions, forms our reserve fund today. Mr. Handschin later served two years as president of the Federation and then withdrew from official work in the Federation to devote himself to other duties. He is still as true as ever to the great cause of modern language teaching and the National Federation.

# THE OLD AND THE NEW

JAMES GEDDES
*Boston University*

[From *FR*, VII, 1, Nov. 1933, 26–38.]

It was on the second of September 1830—a little more than 102 years ago—that Henry Wadsworth Longfellow delivered his inaugural address in Bowdoin College upon assuming his duties in the Professorship of the Modern Languages, to which position the trustees five years previous had invited him informally, after a formal note to establish this chair. In order the better to equip himself for this appointment, Longfellow went to Europe where he spent three years and a half in travel and study in England and in the principal European countries. Possibly this may be the first instance of a native American, receiving such an appointment, taking it seriously enough to spend the time and the money necessary to qualify himself for the duties of the position. To be sure, other Americans who became distinguished scholars had realized the superior advantages of travel and study in Europe, witness Edward Everett, the first American to take the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which he did at Göttingen in 1817; George Bancroft was then studying at the same university, and later on Basil Gildesleeve, William Goodwin and other well known American scholars underwent the influence of German training.

That Longfellow began his distinguished career by teaching modern languages has been so overshadowed by his poetical output throughout his life that his pedagogical production which followed upon assuming his duties of Professor of Modern Languages is practically unknown to the average reader. Finding the elementary treatises of the day poorly adapted to his course, he prepared no less than seven different text-books.

The fact that Longfellow brought out seven text-books between 1830 and 1835 is in itself proof of his seriousness of purpose to teach French, Italian and Spanish to the best of his ability.[1] Some of these books were used for many years, a proof of their pedagogical worth and usefulness. They are all small books which, for beginners, Longfellow preferred to those treating the foreign languages *in extenso*.

The date 1830 is one of the earliest, if not the earliest on record of a chair of Romance languages filled in this country by a professor who taught the languages and literature of all three languages and published at the same time text-books in French, Italian and Spanish. George Ticknor was appointed in 1817 to the professorship of the French and Spanish language and in connection held a chair of Belles Lettres. James Russell Lowell held this chair from 1855–1886 lecturing on European literature particularly Dante. Charles Eliot Norton became professor of Fine Arts in 1875 and later taught Dante in connection with this subject, and published his translations of the "Vita Nuova" and of the "Divine Comedy." Ticknor, Longfellow, Lowell and Norton, each respectively 20 years apart, represent important stages in the development of the study of the Romance languages and literature. Moreover, it may perhaps be worthy of remark that although each one of these eminent teachers possessed the linguistic part of the Romance languages to a high degree of perfection, yet in their life career, this attainment proved to be merely an adjunct or auxiliary to what was primary, in the case of Ticknor Spanish literature, in that of Longfellow poetry, in that of Lowell poetry and general literature, in that of Norton, the fine arts and Dante. Not one of them was a philologist in the sense of Diez in Germany, Gaston Paris in France, d'Ovidio, Hajna, or Ascoli in Italy, or

Menéndez Pidal in Spain. There have been and there are fine philologists in the country; and speaking of Harvard teachers, and Romance philology in particular, the late Edward Stevens Sheldon, the founder of the chair of Romance philology at that university, was one of our outstanding philologists. His great work is to be found in the etymologies of Webster's International Dictionary.

It may be said that the trend of activity and productivity at Harvard, in the Romance field during the first three quarters of the nineteenth century, as has been shown, appears to have a literary slant rather than linguistic or philological; while the last quarter of the century shows a tendency to accentuate and develop the philological or linguistic side of the subject as shown in the output of Grandgent and Ford. Later on the literary, historical, methodological, humanistic, poetical and dramatic elements make their appearance and contribute to a well rounded entity that shines forth brilliantly at the present time, witness the writings of C. H. C. Wright, Irving Babbitt, Louis Mercier, André Morize and Louis Allard. While these teachers began their teaching careers along linguistic lines, as in the case of their early predecessors, this preliminary training has led up to and been subordinate to what appears to be the ultimate aim and object, in the case of Wright literary history, in that of Babbitt literature and humanism, in that of Mercier pedagogy and humanism, in that of Allard, the drama, in that of Morize, French literature and civilization, and notably rendering both popular by outstanding lectures throughout the country.

Among the precursors of French development in this country whose activity had a pronounced influence upon the trend which modern language teaching took later on, must be placed Ferdinand Bôcher, French instructor at Harvard in the sixties, and Lambert Sauveur, father of the distinguished professor of metallurgy at Harvard, and William Dwight Whitney of Yale, the renowned philologist. Dr. Sauveur had a private school in Boston in the seventies and published a number of interesting and practical text-books, introducing his so called Natural Method which for a number of years enjoyed wide-spread popularity. Indeed, President Eliot, known for his sobriety as regards recommendation, at a dinner given to Dr. Sauveur at the Parker House in Boston in the eighties, said: "This natural method is a step in the right direction." Dr. Whitney's French and German grammars were very widely used in this country. With the eighties of the nineteenth century came to the fore such houses for the publication of school and college text-books as Holt, Ginn, Heath, and the American Book Co., since which time, the houses of publication have gone on increasing until at the present time they number one hundred and thirty-two.[2] The output of texts for the teaching of French all these years has easily been in the van, although before the World War, German publications at times did take the lead and Spanish publications after the Spanish War of 1898 and the World War of 1914 at times came close to the annual output of French publications.

What had an immediate and far reaching effect upon the progress of modern language study in the nineteenth century was the formation of the Modern Language Association of America in 1883 for the study of the modern languages in their many phases. The founders of the organization and the charter members whose names appear on the first volume of the "Modern Language Notes" (vol. I, 1886), are among those who became most intimately identified with the progress of modern language interest and development because of their contributions in the "Notes" and their articles and reviews in other periodicals, notably A. Marshall Elliott, James W. Bright, Julius Goebel and Henry Alfred Todd. Elliott's contributions on the French of Canada are notable, as are Bright's on English philology, Goebel's on German, and Todd's on general philology and reviews of important linguistic publications.

Of the influences that have had to do with the trend of modern languages during and just before the beginning of the twentieth century, several are here listed with a brief comment.

1. The War of 1898 brought the study of Spanish into prominence, diminishing slightly the appeal of French, German and Italian.
2. The Report of the Committee of Twelve submitted in 1898, and published in 1900 by D. C. Heath and Co., presented in remarkably clear, tangible and brief form the aims and objects of what is most worth while striving for in the teaching of French and German. Even today, after thirty-three years, the findings of that report are practically incontrovertible.
3. The appearance during the second decade of the twentieth century of the Direct Method, a somewhat modified form of the Sauveur Natural Method, and the introduction of phonetic symbols very generally in the vocabularies of text-books aiming to secure better results in pronunciation.
4. The World War, which for a time almost entirely ruined the prestige, activity, and productivity of German, hurt Italian somewhat, while notably advancing the study of Spanish, which for a time rivaled French; the latter however continues its long time popularity.
5. The launching in 1923 of the Delaware Experiment known as the Junior Year Abroad, now followed out by Smith College and by an increasing number of other institutions. This is proving to be one of the most vitalizing of the many methods to get what we have been for so many years trying to secure in the class room. The effects are far reach-

ing and most satisfactory, for, through these juniors who become teachers later on, the instruction given by them to their pupils is notably superior to what would be given by them without this training. Moreover, it encourages others in increasing numbers to undergo this valuable experience.

6. The founding of the national organizations of Spanish in 1917; of German in 1926; of Italian in 1923, and of our own in 1927, each with important local branches and periodical reviews, summarizing the activities in each field respectively.

7. The Modern Language Study, consisting of a number of detailed investigations by experts on almost every important phase of the subject, undertaken in 1923 and 1924 and concluded in 1928. It is by far the most exhaustive and most complete contribution to the study of the modern languages that has been made in this country. Nevertheless, so voluminous and so detailed is this report as a whole, that it may be questioned whether its findings will ever reach the average teacher of languages, or have the wide influence that the little classic of 1900: "Report of the Committee of Twelve," has had and still continues to have.

8. If several parts of the Modern Language Study fail to get the concrete attention of the great majority of language teachers, nevertheless, the part dealing with the statement of objectives for modern language study, particularly the statement that "the goal during the first two years must be to read the foreign language directly (as in the case of the vernacular) and that to attain this goal, more reading must be done and all other types of class exercise must converge towards that end," has been subjected to such an amount of criticism, as to focus general attention of teachers in regard to just what the objectives are in the teaching of the modern languages, about which the controversy is still going on.[3]

9. The case against the wide-spread teaching of the modern languages. As is well known, for several years, a movement has been on foot to limit the amount of time and money devoted to foreign language study. This movement has been championed by specialists in the fields of psychology and education, the particular reason, summed up in a word, being that what is accomplished in one or two years' instruction is insignificant; "the game is not worth the candle." To which the defendants reply that the criticism is applicable to nearly all new studies taken up; that it is for the critics to substitute something more worth while.[4]

10. The realization all along the line that "greater emphasis of recent years is being placed on pronunciation and oral work with maximum practice in hearing and speaking the language in the class room." [5] This is precisely what the psychologists and specialists in the theory of educa-

tion object to. They are ready at once with the *cui bono*, saying that, be the progress what it may be, the results, given our conditions, are almost immediately forgotten. The forthcoming Coleman *Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching* is likely to supplement the information contained in the *Modern Language Study*, contributing to the better control of the entire material.

Such are the conditions, *pro* and *con*, that since the Spanish War of 1898 down to the present time have influenced and still influence the trend of modern language teaching. The different phases of a language may easily be specialized: grammar, pronunciation, reading, composition, understanding, speaking. A neighbor of mine spends his leisure moments reading French novels. Knowing hardly anything of five of the phases of languages I have just mentioned, he has just enough of the sixth part to give him the enjoyment he seeks, which is all he cares for. Some time ago, a young woman called at my office giving me a message in very good English. When I replied, naturally, in English, she asked me to give her the answer in French, for although people told her that she spoke English well she could not understand it. One of the ordinary Ph. D. requirements is a reading knowledge of French and German, that is, the ability to translate them fairly accurately. This can be done, and my experience is that it not infrequently is done, with but the faintest idea of pronunciation, composition, understanding or speaking on the part of the candidate. Such knowledge as the examples here cited show, accomplish a certain end, but to consider any one of these ends in an educational program as quite sufficient in itself is belittling the language as an educational factor.

In an address, and indeed one of the most luminous, delivered by Professor Grandgent twenty-five years ago, entitled "Is Modern Language Teaching a Failure?" he says: "Our modern languages are just as hard as the ancient, and require to be studied just as industriously. I do not believe there is or ever was a language more difficult to acquire than French; most of us can name worthy persons who have been struggling with it from childhood to mature age and do not know it now: yet it is treated as something that anyone can pick up off-hand."[6] This same idea will be found, differently expressed by Philip Gilbert Hamerton in his *Intellectual Life* where he says: "A language cannot be learned by an adult without five years' residence in the country where it is spoken, and without habits of close observation, a residence of twenty years is insufficient."[7]

All this be it said with no disparagement to the methodology of such esteemed protagonists as Professors Osmond Robert of Smith College, Emile de Sauzé of the Cleveland Board of Education, Edmond Méras of Adelphi College, Jacob Greenberg, Director of foreign language instruction in the city of New York, Albert Cru of Columbia and Louis Mercier of Harvard, which, in their hands, produce wonderful results.

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There is a saying, that "a language is not learned, it is lived." This saying is fundamentally true. Grammar, pronunciation, translation and composition may be learned, whether the language be ancient or modern. Speaking and understanding the modern spoken languages may be acquired, although in rather exceptional cases, in the class room or by means of private instructors. If the results of the teaching of Latin in the Jesuit College are particularly successful, the reason is that Latin is taught there as a living language, not as a dead one. The life of the language is in the spoken idiom. The lack of sufficient contact with it on the part of the learner in most cases precludes the possibility of its ever being acquired as possessed by a native. This is however not an adequate reason for discarding in our educational curriculum what is perhaps the most captivating charm of language, the spoken word. Even though a spoken idiom be possessed to but a limited degree, the grammar, pronunciation, reading, composition and understanding become to just that degree imbued with life, and just so much the more interesting. The finest translation of a work of literature that I know of is Longfellow's translation of the Divine Comedy. This seems so to me, because Longfellow's version is a line for line, word for word revival of the original, a photographic reproduction, in as far as that be possible, of the poem. Indeed to one familiar with Italian, all is there, saving one inherent charm, the music of the Italian language. The controversy between the teachers of psychology and education, and the teachers of the modern languages seems to turn on the question of whether it is worth while to spend the time and the money in trying to initiate our students into what constitutes one of the most elusive yet charming of the assets of the modern languages, the spoken word.

That this has been and is now well recognized from the time of Ticknor and Longfellow to the present moment is proven by the experience of every teacher mentioned here among the old and the new. They have all had the advantages of the Delaware plan. Sauveur was most successful between the days of the old and the new, by his personality, his summer schools and his text-books, in making felt the attraction of this will-of-the-wisp that we are all vainly pursuing, impractical and useless if you will, but which like Dante's Empyrean Sphere radiates the heat that gives life to all of the other phases of language study. An attempt and near approach in these new days to stabilize and control what has been called Friar Tuck's lantern, the evasive and intangible charm of the modern languages, is that made for a number of years, particularly in Spanish and French, under remarkably fine supervision, at the Middlebury Summer School in Vermont, the success of which has made a wide public appeal. Abroad, the idea has been carried out for a number of years at summer schools in the various countries, and in the summer of 1933 will be carried out at Grenoble under the auspices of Adelphi College.

The opponents of the study of the modern language in this country, while not lacking in more or less effective arguments, will have a thankless task to minimize the wide-spread interest in them not only in the educational world but on the part of the public in general, witness the popularity of lectures of exchange professors from abroad, the radio talks and many French film productions, the university extension courses offered in many large cities, and of the numerous private schools where they are being taught all over the country. A careful estimate on the part of the "Modern Foreign Language Study" reckoned all the modern language enrolments in the secondary schools of the country, public and private, in 1925–26, at well over 850,000 or somewhat more than 20 percent of the entire school population.[8]

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Of the six parts here mentioned of a modern language: grammar, pronunciation, reading, composition, understanding, speaking, any one of which may be specialized, speaking is possibly the one part that attracts most of the popular interest, and is least amenable to methods, text-books, rules, and regulations. This may account perhaps for the prolific output of conversation manuals. Be the improvement in them over the days of old what it may be, it is questionable whether their efficiency has kept pace with their improvement.

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The examples cited here in such cases as those of Ticknor, Longfellow, Lowell and Norton, whose personalities are outstanding, are illustrations of the modern languages used largely as the means to accomplish certain far reaching ends. In the case of Bôcher, Sauveur and Whitney, the means and the ends are parallel. Both Bôcher and Sauveur were pioneers in making use in the classroom of the language taught as the means to attaining the end, that of understanding and speaking it. Ideas and inventions are known to occur repeatedly at about the same time in widely distant regions. At the epoch when Sauveur was exploiting independently and very successfully his Natural Method in this country, Dr. Viëtor was introducing what was termed the "New" or the "Reform" and the "Phonetic" method along the lines described in his famous monograph "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren." This is the step that in this country, preceded the Direct Method, itself the precursor of the Delaware Plan. The personality, lectures and text-books of Lambert Sauveur, one of the latter, "Talks with Caesar," being devised for teaching Latin by the Natural Method, were prime factors in launching a movement bound to come, and to advance steadily as seen by the educational trend in the teaching of the modern language today.

The activity of the scholars of the present day, here mentioned, while necessarily linguistic to a very considerable extent, nevertheless reveals a tendency to make the means serve certain ends: history, literature, pedagogy or methodology, humanism, the drama. All of these teachers have had long experience abroad and have been successful in imparting in a good measure to their students the results of their experience. How shall we teachers of language attain, in a small degree, the best results attained by these exemplars of old and new? In a word, by undergoing such experience as these teachers underwent. President Eliot, when discussing the relative values of native and foreign born teachers for teaching the modern languages, once remarked that: "Other things being equal, which they seldom are, the foreigner is to be preferred." My second theme in this discussion deals with "the things that seldom are equal," and how to make them so. What practical means have our students at the present time, and at a modicum of expense of obtaining, if only to limited extent, similar experience?

For students intending to teach the foreign languages, the Delaware plan offers by far what is most advantageous to the student linguistically and culturally, and what is likely to prove an asset in securing a position to teach the modern languages and to place the native teacher some day nearly, if not quite, on a par with the cultured foreign born teacher. Such a native born teacher is apt to have the confidence of the pupils to an extent that the teacher who has not had foreign experience can hardly hope to attain, and which a cultured foreigner, in the nature of the case, is bound to have, giving him quite an advantage over the native teacher who has not had foreign experience.

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## NOTES

1. Samuel Longfellow, editor of Life of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, 2 vols., 8°, Boston, 1886, pp. 175–176.
2. Data furnished by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

3. Cf. Louis Mercier: "Is the Coleman Report justified . . ." *The French Review*, Vol. III, No. 6, May 1930, p. 398.

4. The *pros* and *cons* of the controversy are well set forth in Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, Boston, 1918, Chap. XIII.

5. William R. Price, "Foreign Language Teaching in American High Schools," *The French Review*, Vol. III, No. 1, Oct. 1929, p. 20. Cf. also the author's "Critique of the Teaching of Foreign Languages," etc., *German Quarterly*, Vol. II, No. 4, Nov. 1929.

6. Reprinted among the "Sundry Papers" of *Old and New*, Cambridge, 1920, p. 77.

7. "To a Student of Modern Languages," Letter VIII, p. 114.

8. Robert Herndon Fife, "The Crisis in Modern Language Teaching," *Bulletin of the N. E. M. L. H.*, Vol. XVIII, 1928, p. 12.

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# SPANISH TEACHING IN THE UNITED STATES

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Spanish was the first European language used on the North American continent. It was the language of the discoverer, the explorer, and the conqueror. It was the first European tongue which conveyed to the Indian a notion of the Christian religion, of education, of civilization. The Spanish language was the means of stamping on countless tribes the impress of the life of Spain as it existed in the sixteenth century, and so deep was that impress that traces still remain.

In completing the conquest of this continent—for in 1800 Spain owned not only all the territory south of the Rio Grande but almost half of the present United States—the Spanish government made use of the best educational agency of that day, the Catholic Church. It became the work of the church not only to educate the children of the Spaniards who came to make their homes in the New World, but to civilize, Christianize, and make good Spanish subjects of the hordes of Indians who formerly had undisputed control of the continent. In the towns which existed among the Indians, schools grew up in connection with the churches and monasteries. In the regions occupied only by roving tribes, the Spaniards developed a system of missions in which they tried to induce the Indians to live while being instructed in some of the rudiments of civilization.

There are many evidences of the desire of the Spanish monarchs that their New World subjects learn the Spanish language. In the plan of Ximenes, worked out as early as 1516, emphasis was laid upon the teaching of Spanish. In the *Cedulario* of Encinas, printed in 1596, there is a repetition of this desire, and the various editions of the *Recopilación* reiterate the command that Spanish be taught.

The success of the attempts of the different provinces varied with the conditions. In Florida, where the earliest missions were established, little progress was made, because the location of that province rendered it liable to coastal attacks by the enemies of Spain from abroad and to encroachments of the English by land from the north. The type of Indian who occupied the district was such that it was almost impossible to reduce him for any length of time to the routine of civilized life, and until this could be done there was small chance of imparting to him the Spanish tongue. In San Augustine there was a school in connection with the parish church, for Spanish boys, and by 1606 a seminary had been established for the training of priests. After being closed for some years, this was reopened in 1736 and again in 1785 when the king furnished the funds, but the continued attacks of the English made progress impossible. In 1819 Florida became a part of the United States, the first step in the process by which Spain was to lose all her New World possessions.

In New Mexico, the next province founded, the results of the teaching of Spanish were very different. With the coming of Oñate in 1598, there were Spanish settlements made in the various Indian towns, and missions were established throughout the region. In these emphasis was laid upon the practical arts, but Spanish was always taught to the brighter pupils who, it was hoped, might become teachers. According to the report of Benavides, printed in 1630, much educational progress had already been made, but friction between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities made its continuance impossible. The poor Indians, who bore the brunt of the conflict, for they found it impossible to serve two masters, at last rose in rebellion in 1680, burnt both the homes and the churches, drove the Spaniards down the Rio Grande, and made themselves, temporarily, once more the masters of the province.

Upon the return of the Spaniards in 1692–93, educational efforts were renewed. In 1721 the king ordered the establishment of public schools in all the pueblos and Spanish settlements. But as late as 1812, Pino, the deputy from New Mexico to the Spanish *cortes*, was still appealing for schools at Santa Fě, for none but private schools existed. The independence of Mexico affected conditions but little. In 1823 there was a private school in El Paso; in 1826 two colleges were established by Catholic priests; in 1827 it was claimed that there were 17 schools in the province; and, by 1844, that there was a school in every town of importance.

The occupation of New Mexico by the United States brought about no sudden linguistic changes. Governor Vigil in his message to the legislature—a message written in Spanish to legislators who spoke only Spanish—said that there was only one public school in the province, that in Santa Fé. All of the schools which existed during the next few decades, with the exception of a few private schools, were taught in Spanish. The nuns who were brought from the East to teach the girls had to learn the language before beginning work. In 1878, in the 138 schools then existing, instruction was given almost entirely in the Spanish language. A decade later almost half of the schools were still taught entirely in Spanish. Even as late as 1909 the Spanish-American Normal School was established at Rita for the express purpose of educating "Spanish-speaking natives . . . for the vocation of teachers in the public schools of the counties and districts where the Spanish language is still prevalent." Clearly the language of the conquistadores had survived in New Mexico until the twentieth century.

In Texas the situation was slightly different. During the eighteenth century a chain of missions, dotting the country from the Rio Grande to the Sabine, was established, but educationally little was accomplished, for the Texas Indians refused to stay in the missions for any length of time. In San Antonio a school for Spanish children was conducted in connection with the parish church, the parents paying a small fee to the *sacristan*. After 1800 several secular schools were established for Mexican children, and during the 'twenties, when the Americans began to pour into Texas, schools were opened in Bahía and Nacogdoches, but in these the English fast supplanted the Spanish, a procedure not in conformity with the intentions of the Mexican government, for, by the terms of the grant to Stephen F. Austin, all official communications had to be in Spanish, and in the new towns schools were to be established which were to be taught in the Spanish language. Yet by 1835, Almonte, a Mexican official, admitted that "almost nothing but English" was spoken in eastern Texas.

After the establishment of the Republic of Texas in 1836 for a time there was much enthusiasm among the Americans for the study of Spanish, but as the Mexican officials were displaced in both state and municipal offices, English was rapidly substituted for Spanish; after 1850 all official records were kept entirely in English. Private schools, especially the Catholic institutions, continued to be taught in Spanish, but the public schools, largely fostered by the German element, favored

German. In San Antonio Spanish was taught in the grades until after 1910, and along the border many schools were actually taught in Spanish long after the laws demanded English. In 1918 it became illegal to give instruction in, or to use any foreign tongue, in any school below the high school. Nevertheless, the large floating population which continues to drift across the Rio Grande year after year makes the Spanish language a problem still to be reckoned with.

In Lower California the Spaniards began educational work as early as 1705, when the Jesuits established their first mission at San Xavier. As the work developed, although emphasis was placed upon the practical arts, reading and writing were taught, and the more gifted Indians were sent to a centrally located school where they were instructed in Spanish. After the suppression of the Jesuits in 1767, their work was continued by the Franciscans who, under that indomitable leader, Junipero Serra, at once began to extend the mission field to Upper California. After Serra's death in 1784, Father Lazuen, his successor, insisted on more emphasis upon instruction in reading, writing, and Spanish grammar.

A secular school existed in Santa Barbara by 1784, but the tuition fee of $125 probably limited the enrolment to the aristocracy. Books were scarce; in their absence the teachers had to prepare digests of those available. In 1793 the king ordered that secular schools in the Spanish language be established in all the towns; the natives were to learn to read, write, and speak it; they were even forbidden the use of their native tongue. As a result of this order, some schools were established with soldiers as teachers, but, as the army was constantly being shifted, little real progress was made. Under Governor Sola new schools were opened and teachers brought from Spain; a man unable to read and write was prohibited from holding office. The Franciscan schools at Santa Clara and San Gabriel were supported for a time at government expense, but, when it was reported that the Franciscans were plotting against the Mexican government in favor of Spain, the schools were ordered closed and the friars expelled.

During the last decade of Mexican rule a few schools were opened, among these a normal school at San Gabriel in 1834, in which whites and Indians were received on equal terms, and a college at Santa Barbara. The curriculum of the primary schools was ordered improved and a decree issued compelling parents to send their children to school. Probably the best school which existed was that conducted by Enrique Cambastón, a Frenchman, and José Campiña, a Cuban; under their supervision many of the men prominent later in California were educated.

In 1846, when the territory was occupied by the American army, English at once began to take the place of Spanish. The first newspaper was printed in both languages, and a law passed in 1849 required the laws to be printed in both, a policy followed until 1879. But the discovery of gold brought Americans into the state in such numbers that the change in the language was rapid. The religious schools were taught in Spanish, but the public schools, which came at once under American control, were taught in English; although Spanish was taught, as a subject, in even the elementary grades for many years. As the language of the people, Spanish was, before many decades, largely supplanted by English; yet California has retained much of the Spanish atmosphere and still offers to visitors many tangible evidences of the days when the Spanish language predominated.

Another large territory came under Spanish control in 1761, when the king of France ceded to the king of Spain all of the country then known as Louisiana, but the new rulers were by no means cordially welcomed by the French inhabitants; indeed, the first Spanish governor was forcibly expelled. To overcome this feeling the Spanish officials exerted themselves to the utmost. In 1772 teachers were sent from Spain to establish a Spanish school in New Orleans, but the governor, knowing he could not compel the parents to send their children, satisfied himself with acquainting the public "with the benefits that the magnanimous heart of His Majesty offered"; to this appeal only a few responded. In the Ursuline convent, where the French nuns shed bitter tears over having to use the Spanish language in teaching, the government placed Spanish-speaking nuns from Havana; these soon controlled the convent. In 1779 there were sent to Louisiana 495 families from the Canary Islands as a nucleus around which the Spanish efforts to implant the language might center. At the time of the transfer of the territory to the United States, the one public school in New Orleans was being taught in Spanish.

In the first college established under American rule, the College of Orleans, Spanish was taught; and also in the College of Louisiana which succeeded it. In 1829 Spanish was being taught in the Central School of New Orleans, the equivalent of a high school. The College of Jefferson, established in 1831, had students who "turned with accuracy and elegance Spanish into French and English." Spanish continued to be included in the course of study of the public schools of New Orleans and in the colleges of the state regularly until the Civil War, over a half-century after Spanish rule had passed.

But slightly more than one century ago all the states which today form the southern boundary of the United States were Spanish possessions. She had won them by conquest; as the language of the conquistadores had the Spanish language become the language of the people.

All of the resources of Spain had been called to her aid in the many and varied efforts to make this whole territory truly Spanish.

To no small degree was the success attained in making Spanish the language of the people in the territory conquered by Spain due to the untiring efforts of the Catholic Church, without whose aid Spain could never have held her vast realms in the New World. The mission system had brought the native population nominally into the folds of the Church, which, in turn, labored to make them good Spaniards. The transfer of colonists to Louisiana, Texas, New Mexico, and California had given a nucleus of Spanish-speaking people whose descendants spread the language. The encouragement of marriage between Spanish men and native women also had great weight, for every Spaniard insisted that his children, although only *mestizos*, speak his native tongue. The many orders issued for the promotion of schools and those which insisted on the more extensive use of Spanish indicate the extent of the determination of the Catholic monarchs that their New World subjects speak the Spanish language. Teachers, books, and money were given without stint. From the educational standards of today the results attained may seem insignificant, but the permanence of the language among the people ruled by Spain shows that more than a mere impression was made; the language really became their own. And in absorbing the language of Spain, there was fixed deep and woven into the texture of their lives the ideals of Spain, which did not die merely because her rule had passed.

During the centuries in which Spain was extending her domains and making Spanish the language of her subjects in North America, the English settlements were becoming more firmly entrenched along the Atlantic coast and more widely extended in area. Between the colonists of the two nations there was, however, little contact before the latter half of the eighteenth century. This condition was merely a reflection of the attitude of Spain and England toward each other at home; the enmity which existed between them was rooted not only in political but also in religious hatreds. Jealousy and selfishness characterized the general policy of Spain toward her colonies. Foreigners were excluded, and commerce between her subjects and those of other nations was for centuri absolutely forbidden. In spite of these restrictions, the lure of gain led many English-speaking merchants to the borders and ports of Spanish America, where they were welcomed by officials only too willing to share in the profits. The monopolistic policy of Spain permitted certain high officials to control prices at the expense of the colonists, and certain industries were entirely prohibited in the Indies; these restrictions, although planned to react solely for the benefit of the mother-country, really helped to create a market for certain classes of foreign goods.

In spite of the wall which Spain tried to maintain about her colonies, there are indications that some of the English colonists in New England early became interested in the Spanish language as a means of approach. In the *Letter Book* of Samuel Sewall, under date of October, 1691, there are jottings of an order for a Spanish grammar, a dictionary, and a copy of *Las Casas*. Later he ordered a Spanish Bible from Amsterdam. The object of his interest was not commercial, as one might suppose, but religious; as was that of Cotton Mather who refers to his Spanish studies in his *Diary* under the date of January, 1699. From those studies resulted the first volume printed in Spanish in the English colonies of North America, *La Fe del Cristianismo* (1699), a tract which he wrote for the purpose of proselyting in Spanish America.

Naturally it would be in the port towns that one would expect to find the first evidences of a commercial interest in Spanish. That such an interest did exist at an early period and that teachers were available who stimulated that interest, a number of advertisements of Spanish teachers amply prove. The first of these appeared in the *New York Gazette* from July 14 to 21, 1735, and reads as follows:

> This is to give notice that over against the sign of the black Horse in Smith-street, near the old Dutch Church, is carefully taught the French and Spanish languages, after the best method that is now practiced in Great Britain which for the encouragement of those who intend to learn the same is taught at 20s per Quarter.

In 1747 Augustus Vaughan opened a school in which Spanish was taught; in 1749 John Clarke announced that he taught Spanish; in 1751 Garret Noel, a book-seller as well as a Spanish teacher, issued *A short Introduction to the Spanish language; [illegible] which is added a vocabulary of familiar words for the more speedy improvement of the learner; with a preface shewing the usefulness of this language particularly in these parts*, which is, so far as the writer has been able to determine, the first textbook for the study of the Spanish language published in territory now included in the United States. In 1772 Francis Hunbert de la Roche entered the ranks of Spanish teachers in New York; the following year, Anthony Fiva. Most of these gentlemen also offered their services to merchants in carrying on correspondence and translating bills and accounts.

Among the first of leading thinkers who publicly urged the inclusion of Spanish in the course of study of the colonial schools was Benjamin Franklin. Both in his *Autobiography* and in the *Proposals Relating to the Education of the Youth in Pennsylvania*, he advocated the teaching of Spanish; as a result of his influence, the language was included in the curriculum of the Public Academy of the City of Philadelphia, which later became the University of Pennsylvania. In this institution Paul Fooks served as teacher of Spanish from 1766 to 1797; Felix Merino, from 1825 to 1829; and Augustus Willis, from 1829 to 1834.

Another statesman who clearly perceived the advantages of a knowledge of Spanish to the future citizens of the United States was Thomas Jefferson. In various letters to young men then in college, he outlined his views concerning the importance of Spanish as a means of communication with Spain and Spanish America, and as a key to the early history of America. To his interest in the language may be traced its introduction in 1780 in the course of study of William and Mary College.

But changes were fast taking place which forced the English-speaking settlers of North America into closer touch with the Spanish world. The American Revolution was but the beginning of the breaking down of obstacles which had kept the subjects of England and Spain apart. Spain was an enemy of the English colonists, but not of the people of the new republic. During the struggle she lent her aid to the revolting colonies, and, as soon as success was assured, she sent to Philadelphia, New York, and other important commercial centers both diplomatic and consular representatives whose object it was to awaken further interest in Spain and her colonies.

The establishment of independence brought in its train new religious freedom, which was particularly important in connection with the growing interest in the Spanish language, for now, for the first time, were Catholics permitted to establish permanent educational foundations among the English-speaking settlers of North America. Maryland, the original Catholic colony, became the center of Catholic activity along educational lines; schools were opened in and near Baltimore to which Spanish-speaking children from Havana and Mexico came. There was a new intermingling of Spanish- and English-speaking Catholic clergy along the Atlantic coast; an intermingling which was to bear permanent fruit.

But events outside of the United States were also destined to foster a closer bond between the English and Spanish peoples of the Western Hemisphere. The French Revolution exerted an influence to this end which has received small recognition. French refugees poured into Spain; before many years the upheaval there forced some of these exiles to seek safety in the Western Hemisphere, especially in the United States, thus establishing new bonds between this country and France and Spain. Following the insurrection in Santo Domingo, a result of the French Revolution, many subjects of both France and Spain from that island became citizens of the United States. The Napoleonic invasion of Spain forced the steps of many other Spaniards to be turned westward. Each of these waves of immigration brought into the United States men and women of culture—teachers, writers, and members of the nobility—whose straitened financial condition forced them to seek the first opportunity that offered for securing a livelihood. Often that proved to be teaching, either of French, Spanish, or both.

Paralleling the startling changes which were taking place in Europe came the breaking down of the commercial restrictions formerly imposed upon the Spanish colonies. In 1788 ports in the Indies were thrown open to trade with all Spanish ports; inter-colonial trade began to flourish and in a few years foreign merchantmen were admitted under certain conditions. Shippers in the United States wasted no time in taking advantage of this opportunity; soon many ships, flying the flag of the northern republic, were plying between the ports of the north Atlantic and Spanish America.

The new contacts which were thus being established by water were strengthened by closer communication between the colonists of the two nations by land. While Louisiana was in the hands of the Spaniards, the frontier line of the United States had been steadily moving westward, bringing the outposts of the two nations, especially along the Mississippi, into constantly closer relations. By 1800 the frontier of New Spain had reached its most northern limit. From the Mississippi, a line west delimiting the possessions of Spain would have extended from St. Louis to Oregon; a line east would have reached to the northern boundary of Florida. Considerably more than half of the present United States was then territory claimed by Spain.

More propitious still for encouraging an intermingling of the peoples of the two nations were the conditions which arose as a result of the revolutions which from 1808 on shook from the foundations the entire Spanish-American world. Representatives from Mexico and the various South American countries established headquarters in the more important cities of the United States, and propaganda work in behalf of the independence movement in the Spanish colonies was actively carried on. A newspaper in Spanish, *El Misisipi*, the first in the United States, began to appear in New Orleans. The appeals of Mexico for aid met a ready and generous response; troops were organized and sent forward to assist the oppressed people. Revolutionary proclamations, pamphlets, and books were printed in the United States: in English, to arouse American citizens to action; in Spanish, for distribution in the Spanish colonies where the presses were tightly muzzled. American printers and translators found a knowledge of the language a valuable asset. Teachers and textbooks grew in favor. It may safely be said that the second decade of the nineteenth century was productive of a sympathy for and an interest in Spanish America never before felt by the people in the United States.

Further impetus to an interest in the Spanish language was given by the purchase of Louisiana in 1803 and of Florida in 1819. In each case, the United States came into control of large areas occupied largely by people using only the Spanish language and knowing only the ideals of Spain. Their records and such literature as they had were entirely in Spanish. As Americans flocked into the newly acquired territory, many came, for the first time, into close contact with districts unmistakably Spanish in atmosphere. Thus, by the most natural method, many settlers in the South learned Spanish through necessity. They, in turn, communicated their impressions of the value of the language to friends and relatives in the districts from which they had migrated.

The two streams of foreign influence which were awakening an interest in the study of Spanish, namely, the current from Europe and that from Spanish America, were turned, while at flood tide, in a definite direction in 1815, when Abiel Smith made a bequest of $20,000 to Harvard University for the creation of a professorship of French and Spanish, the first specific bequest for the teaching of modern languages in American educational history. From the establishment of this professorship dates the rise of a teacher of modern languages to the position of a college officer; from this time on, he could expect to be regarded as a member of the faculty. For the incumbent of the Smith Chair was not expected to act merely as an instructor; he was to devote himself to the supervision of his department and to give his attention chiefly to advanced lecture work. The remarkable careers of the men who filled this chair in the nineteenth century deserve a special chapter to do them justice, but a few words must suffice. The first incumbent was George Ticknor, who not only did distinguished work as a teacher and administrator but, through the publication of the first real history of Spanish literature, easily placed himself in the front ranks of American scholars. The second Smith Professor was Henry W. Longfellow, whose poetical translations and other works colored by Spanish life and thought brought fame to him, his institution, and the nation. The third was James R. Lowell, who, while not as distinguished a Spanish scholar as his predecessors, helped to cement bonds of friendship between the two nations during the period he served as ambassador of the United States to Spain. It would be hard, indeed, to estimate the influence which these men and their associates exerted on the development of Spanish teaching in the United States. Each helped the mechanical processes of teaching throughout the country by demanding and securing from the corps of instructors under their supervision efficient instruction of the elementary classes. The texts, syllabi, and lectures which they prepared furnished materials for instruction in many institutions. But the distinctive feature of the Spanish instruction given at Harvard is that it reflected only the European influence; each of these professors introduced their students to the literature of Spain and especially to the atmosphere, the charm, and the wonders of Spain in the Golden Age. To them, the language was a key to the culture of Spain, and it was the cultural aspect which they emphasized.

This was the natural result of educational conditions in the New World. Each one of the Smith Professors and the teachers under them were steeped in the culture of Europe; they knew nothing of Spanish America. For inspiration they turned to Spain and Germany; as a result, they aroused interest in those fields. Among the men who early shared the enthusiasm of Ticknor for Spanish studies was Prescott, who was led by him to the field of research from which came *Ferdinand and Isabella, Philip II,* the *Conquest of Mexico,* and the *Conquest of Peru.* Motley, a student in the Round Hill School of Cogswell and Bancroft, both fellow-students of Ticknor at Göttingen, turned the knowledge gained in the Spanish field to scholarly ends in the *Rise of the Dutch Republic* and in the *United Netherlands.* The influence of the attitude of the Harvard professors toward Spanish determined to a large extent the type of study followed in most of the schools in the United States; even the institutions which urged the study of the language from the most utilitarian motives used texts whose purpose was to introduce students to the treasures of Spanish literature. Never throughout the century did Harvard cater to the practical calls for Spanish; no text dealing with Mexico or South America was ever issued; and no member of the faculty who taught Spanish ever traveled in Spanish America.

During the decade following the installation of Ticknor at Harvard (1819), the wave of interest in the Spanish language was productive of definite results educationally. In rapid succession the University of Virginia, Bowdoin, Amherst, Miami, Williams, College of New Jersey, Columbia, and the University of the City of New York added Spanish to the curriculum (Table I). Of these, five established professorships; the others employed only instructors. Nor was the interest limited to the college sphere; the academies and the newly established high schools introduced Spanish, the New York and the Franklin High School in Philadelphia when they were opened, the latter offering a three-year course. Spanish was also included in the course of study of the high schools of Salem, Greenfield, Providence, and Buffalo before 1830. Among the many private schools which taught Spanish, especial men-

## TABLE I

Colleges Which Introduced Spanish Before 1832

| College | Year | College | Year |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pennsylvania | 1750 | Yale | 1826 |
| William and Mary | 1780 | Amherst | 1827 |
| St. Mary's (Baltimore) | 1800 | Williams | 1827 |
| Dickinson | 1814 | Miami | 1827 |
| Harvard | 1816 | Columbia | 1830 |
| Virginia | 1825 | New Jersey College (Princeton) | 1830 |
| Bowdoin | 1825 | University of City of N. Y. | 1832 |

tion must be made of the Round Hill School, established by Bancroft and Cogswell, which was attended by students from points as far distant as Havana, Mexico, and Brazil.

With the opening of the fourth decade, new agencies were at work fomenting an interest in the study of the Spanish language. The establishment of a republic in Texas served to attract the attention of the people of the United States to the question of annexation of another large territory in which the older towns were settled almost entirely by Spaniards and Mexicans. Prospectors and merchants went forward rapidly into the new republic; even teachers and writers were attracted by its possibilities. The need of a practical knowledge of the Spanish language faced them at every turn, and many set about acquiring it.

The approach of annexation brought the conviction that such action meant war. At once the government of the United States was confronted with the problem of studying ways and means of dealing with a people whose ideas and language were foreign. In all branches of the army and navy the need of translators and people able to speak the Spanish language became pressing. As the army advanced into Mexico, the American people were brought into closer touch with a Spanish-speaking nation than ever before. Men of all classes and from all parts of the country were sent to the front; for the first time the resources and possibilities of the vast territory held by Mexico were revealed to them. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was but a signal which sent a wave of settlers to the Southwest. Many former army officers went there to make their homes; newspaper men shipped their presses to the newly acquired territory and began to issue papers in both Spanish and English; the American element soon asserted control over both civil and commercial activities in all the larger towns. Private teachers of Spanish were in demand, and translators did a thriving business from New Orleans to San Francisco.

The discovery of gold in California acted as an even greater incentive to migration westward. While many made the trip around the

Horn, thousands of others traveled overland to California by the southern route. At every step through Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California they were forced into contact with Spanish-speaking people, practically none of whom knew a word of English. Traces of the Spanish governmental system and business methods were not to be banished overnight; in order to exercise their professions many lawyers and business men were forced to acquire a working knowledge of the language.

Each successive wave of onsweeping colonists into Spanish territory sent back into the older settlements a reflection of the new contacts which were being established. The awakened interest in the study of the Spanish language is shown by its inclusion in the course of study of various higher institutions of learning in which, about this time, a wave of reorganization was taking place. Table II gives some idea of the institutions which introduced or re-introduced Spanish during the period from 1846 to 1896. While it is more than probable that some of these institutions taught Spanish before the dates mentioned, it was certainly being taught in each at the year specified.

### TABLE II

COLLEGES WHICH INTRODUCED SPANISH, 1846 TO 1896

| | |
|---|---|
| U.S. Naval Academy | 1846 |
| Brown | 1850 |
| Baylor (Texas) | 1853 |
| U.S. Military Academy | 1854 |
| Kentucky | 1870 |
| Michigan | 1870 |
| California | 1871 |
| Chicago (Baptist) | 1874 |
| Amherst | 1874 |
| Haverford (Pennsylvania) | 1874 |
| St. Vincent (Pennsylvania) | 1874 |
| Santa Clara (California) | 1874 |
| Franciscan (California) | 1874 |
| St. Ignatius (California) | 1876 |
| Santa Rosa (California) | 1876 |
| Southwestern (Texas) | 1876 |
| Waco (Texas) | 1876 |
| Texas A. and M. | 1876 |
| Missouri | 1880 |
| Denver | 1881 |
| Iowa | 1883 |
| Texas | 1883 |
| Rutgers | 1883 |
| Tulane | 1884 |
| Wisconsin | 1887 |
| Lafayette | 1887 |
| Alabama | 1889 |
| Chicago University | 1893 |
| Kansas | 1894 |

The status of Spanish as a subject receiving credit toward a college degree in 1888–89 is summarized by the United States Bureau of Education in a list of institutions which accepted such courses toward their degree (Table III). It is probable that this list is incomplete. The absence of Columbia, California, Cornell, and the state institutions of Missouri, Georgia, Kentucky, Iowa, and Louisiana leaves room for questions. Some of these may not have reported; some may not, in that year, have ac-

## TABLE III

Yale University
University of Notre Dame
Washburn College
Boston University
Harvard University
Wellesley College
University of Michigan
College of the City of New York
Lafayette College
Brown University
University of Texas
Amherst College
University of Vermont
University of Virginia
University of Wisconsin

cepted Spanish toward the degree, but the absence of so many which had certainly been giving Spanish courses for some years is surprising.

It is difficult to surmise the probable fate of Spanish teaching in the United States after the late 'nineties had no special impetus been given to it by the Spanish-American War. This war provided further incentive to the study. As in 1846, many Americans were brought into actual contact with Spanish life and the attention of others directed to Spanish America as never before. At the close of the war, the United States remained in possession of Porto Rico and the Philippines, and continued for some years to exert an indirect control over Cuba, all of which were inhabited, in the main, by Spanish-speaking people.

The acquisition of this new territory was timely, from a certain standpoint. By 1890 the western frontier line of the United States had disappeared; no more territory remained for the pioneer to claim as his own. The United States had become a rich nation, manufacturing beyond the needs of its own people. Capital was at hand for opportunities beyond the national boundaries. Business was seeking new fields, and that demand was in part met by the new territory acquired from Spain.

The main obstacle to progress in this field was the fact that the people spoke another language, did business by different methods, and lived another life. The United States had never been successful in building up trade with South America or the West Indies, in spite of the rapid development of some sections and the great markets which they offered. Through ignorance, laziness, or mere inability to adapt himself to the needs of Spanish America, the American merchant had forfeited most of the trade of these nations to the Germans, who were untiring in their efforts not only to deal with the Spanish-speaking merchant in his own language, but to study and meet his wants, and to send him his goods when he wanted them. As a result, in 1898 the United States did not figure commercially, to any great extent, in South American trade.

The Spanish-American War and the consequent acquisition of new territory seemed to act as an eye-opener on the magnates of the commercial circles in the United States. For the first time, apparently, they caught a glimpse of the time when they must turn to the great undeveloped areas of South America as a field of investment for their money and a market for their goods. The first step to that end which suggested itself was simple: more people in the United States must learn the Spanish language. As a result of this conviction came the general introduction of Spanish into the secondary schools of the country. Each wave of contacts had brought the same result, but each time on a larger scale: in the 'twenties Spanish was introduced in some of the high schools and academies; at the close of the Mexican War, into the high schools of Baltimore and Boston; after 1898, its introduction was general in all parts of the country. Some of the leading schools which introduced Spanish between 1898 and 1910 are: Boston, St. Louis, Chicago, Cincinnati, Albany, Worcester, Washington, D.C., Covington, Chattanooga, Houston, Philadelphia, Quincy, Saginaw, and York, Pennsylvania.

The continued progress made by Spanish in the high schools is indicated rather definitely by the fact that Spanish was accepted, at the opening of the school year of 1912, by 124 from a list of 203 colleges of the country in satisfaction of their entrance requirements; 68 accepting three units, and 56, two units. By 1914 the American people were being urged by editorials and by such officials as the Commissioner of Education to give more attention to Spanish America, not only to the language, but to a better acquaintance with the geography, history, literature, and life of the people. According to the official figures issued by the Bureau of Education, there were, in 1910, 4,920 pupils, or .67 per cent of those studying a foreign language, pursuing Spanish. By 1915, the number had grown to 33,148, or 2.72 per cent of the number enrolled. The location of the schools whose enrolment furnished the last figures is of interest.

| Location | Schools | Numbers | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| United States | 678 | 35,148 | 2.72 |
| North Atlantic | 125 | 9,127 | 2.11 |
| North Central | 86 | 3,762 | .76 |
| South Atlantic | 51 | 1,182 | 1.27 |
| South Central | 141 | 5,205 | 4.25 |
| Western | 275 | 15,972 | 10.45 |

It is clear from these figures that Spanish was still most popular in those districts which had been Spanish territory. At other points which had come into close contact with Spanish countries the enrolment figures were high, as in New York, Boston, and the ports of the state of Washington, all of which had been affected by Spanish-American trade. The figures indicate that the interest which was first awakened in the port towns for the Spanish language as a commercial asset was still undiminished.

The entrance of the United States into the World War had a marked influence on the teaching of Spanish. In many schools German was dropped entirely; in others the course was shortened. In either case, the students were urged to take either French or Spanish instead. The results of the first year of the war on modern language study in 210 American colleges is shown by the following figures:[1]

| | 1916–17 | 1917–18 | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| German | 21,072 | 12,652 | —40 |
| French | 17,129 | 19,352 | 13 |
| Spanish | 1,736 | 9,579 | 452 |

In 1918, the *New York Times* announced in an editorial that the increase since 1915 was 1,000 per cent, 400 out of 505 secondary schools having substituted Spanish for German; it also stated that in the Boston High School the study of Spanish had been made compulsory.

In an attempt to determine whether such changes were actually taking place, *The Modern Language Journal* sent out a questionnaire to the larger cities and colleges in the fall of 1919. The replies, while incomplete, left no doubt that Spanish had the largest percentage of gain in the higher institutions of learning as well as in the secondary schools.

The general introduction of Spanish into the secondary schools and the lengthening of the courses offered caused not only a marked increase in the size of college classes pursuing the language, but a greater demand for advanced work and wider recognition of Spanish as a subject for graduate study. While the movement toward recognition of Spanish on a par with French began early in the 'nineties, when Yale and Chicago accepted Spanish as a branch of scholarship leading to the doctorate of philosophy, it gained added impetus from the increased attention given to Spanish in the secondary schools and as an undergraduate study. Among the leading institutions which are today offering instruction leading to the doctorate in Spanish are Columbia, Harvard, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Chicago, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois, California, Stanford, and Texas.

The increased enrolment in Spanish in the colleges has brought about another line of advance which may presage the tendency of the future. In 1916 the first course in Spanish-American literature was offered at the University of Missouri. Such courses have grown in popularity, especially in the Southwest. A reflection of this is to be found in the publication of texts based on the geography and life of the people of Spanish America. Each year sees new volumes being issued in the United States which direct attention to the countries to the south. The best works of Spanish-American writers are now included among the texts read in both secondary schools and colleges. The business departments of the colleges are giving more attention to specialized courses dealing with South American trade. As ten of the forty offices maintained by the United States Department of Commerce are in places in which Spanish is the only language of commercial value, and as 120 of the 410 foreign cities where the State Department is represented are in Spanish-speaking countries, the need for such training is easily apparent.

Impetus to Spanish study in the United States has come, then, from two sources, the European and Spanish-American. The teaching at Harvard and some of the other eastern institutions has determined, to a large extent, the type of instruction and the texts used in other schools. The addition of large areas of Spanish territory to the United States has not had the tendency to increase the number of Spanish-speaking inhabitants; instead the Spanish language has been supplanted by English as fast as possible. From the districts in which the interest in the Spanish language should naturally be greatest has come little of influence on the teaching of the language in general. The natural interest of children of Spanish parentage in the Southwest in the life and customs of their ancestors has been ignored, and the Americanization movement bids fair to rob them of the language of their forefathers. Students of the Spanish language have had their attention directed to the life and literature of Spain, and those who have traveled have sought Spain as their Mecca, not Spanish America. And there are good reasons for this. Spain has a literature which presents unlimited fields for linguistic as well as historical research; Spanish America has as yet produced little of value. Spain and Spanish life are colored with the romantic tinge given by earlier writers; Spain in America is yet in the making. But the Spanish elements in American life are destined to receive more attention than formerly; even the life, the ideals, and the language of the descendants of the Spanish-speaking groups who occupied areas now included in the United States are becoming subjects of study, thus opening up new fields of research close at hand. Right at our door is Mexico, a country rich in tradition, and beginning to produce some literature worthy of serious study. Brought closer to us by the Panama Canal are the great nations of South America, a field of unlimited promise.

* * * * *

## NOTE

1. P. R. Kolbe, *The Colleges in War Time and After*, N. Y. 1919, page 106

# A NOTE ON THE BEGINNING OF ITALIAN INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

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[From *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States,* Washington, 1913, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1913, No. 3.]

(pp. 85–86) "The Italian abounds with works of very superior order, valuable for their matter, and still more distinguished as models of the finest taste in style and composition." Thus wrote Thomas Jefferson, and we know that Jefferson learned Italian in his early years, probably at William and Mary College.

Italian was practically unknown in public schools in America, except in the cosmopolitan schools of San Francisco. However, three Italian schools were for years maintained by the Children's Aid Society in the City of New York, and had a large enrollment. They were for Italian children exclusively, were nonsectarian, and taught especially English, manual training, and politics.[1]

Bellini, himself an Italian, taught Italian in 1780, and afterwards, at William and Mary College.

Dickinson College had a professor of French, Spanish, Italian, and German from 1814 to 1816, while in Columbia University we find the first professors of Italian in the persons of Lorenzo Da Ponte (1826–1837) and E. Felix Foresti (1839–1856). Amherst offered Italian for the first time in 1851, and New Jersey College in 1832.

At the University of Pennsylvania Lorenzo de la Ponte became an instructor in Italian in 1830. He was followed by Vincent d'Amarelli (1851–1864) and by Giuseppi Mazza (1867–1869). These men were not members of the faculty. No one was designated for Italian until 1892, when Hugo Rennert was made professor of Romance Languages.

Slowly, universities and a number of the better colleges came to offer a course in Italian. (In 1888, 101 universities and colleges accepted Italian for entrance, but in no case was it required. *Editor's summary.*) Today, of a list of 174 colleges and universities, 66 teach Italian, while of another list of 340 colleges and universities, 90 teach Italian.

Of the 340 universities and colleges mentioned, 4 teach more than 4 years; 6 teach 4 years; 9 teach 3 years; 33 teach 2 years; and 37 only 1 year of Italian.

## NOTE

1. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Rep. of the Commissioner, 1892–93, pp. 619 f. Italian was taught in Brighton, Mass., High School in 1843, and in Medford, Mass., High School in 1854–55. Inglis, *The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts*, Teachers College Pubs., p. 135.

# HISTORY OF THE MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

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[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, Introduction. N. Y. 1929. P.A.C.C., Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 1–5) The Modern Foreign Language Study was organized in the spring of 1924 for the purpose of making a general inquiry into the teaching and learning of modern languages in the United States. Thanks to the efforts of a number of members of the profession, the attention of the Carnegie Corporation through its President, Dr. F. P. Keppel, had been called to the need of such an investigation, and, after some conference and a discussion of plans, the trustees of the Corporation generously appropriated annually for three years a sum of money sufficient to pay the necessary expenses. The Committee on Direction and Control was then organized, an Executive Committee consisting of the chairman, the vice-chairman and the secretary was appointed, and the services of three special investigators secured. Later an advisor in educational psychology was added to the group. The organization was as follows:

*Committee on Direction and Control:* Josephine T. Allin, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.; E. C. Armstrong, Princeton University; E. B. Babcock, New York University; Mary C. Burchinal, West Philadelphia High School; J. P. W. Crawford, University of Pennsylvania, *Vice-Chairman;* R. H. Fife, Columbia University, *Chairman;* C. H. Grandgent, Harvard University; C. H. Handschin, Miami University; E. C. Hills, University of California; A. R. Hohlfeld, University of Wisconsin; Josephine W. Holt, City Schools, Richmond, Va.; H. Keniston, University of Chicago, *Secretary;* W. A. Nitze, University of Chicago; W. R. Price, N. Y. State Dept. of Education; L. A. Roux, Newark Academy;

Julius Sachs, Teachers College, Columbia University; E. B. de Sauzé, City Schools, Cleveland, Ohio; W. B. Snow, City Schools, Boston, Mass.; Marian P. Whitney, Vassar College; M. A. Buchanan, University of Toronto, *Chairman Canadian Committee.*

*Special Investigators:* Algernon Coleman; Charles M. Purin; Carleton A. Wheeler.

*Advisor in Educational Psychology:* V. A. C. Henmon.

It soon became evident that the actual investigation must be in the hands of a smaller group, and a Committee on Investigation was organized, composed of the members of the Executive Committee, the three special investigators and the advisor in educational psychology.

Several things became clear at an early date. One was that the inquiry must be limited to the secondary school and to the first and second years in college. It was also evident that as much quantitative data as possible should be secured, especially in regard to the measurement of linguistic achievement. In the next place it was patent that it would be necessary to arouse the interest and secure the assistance of large numbers of modern language teachers, of school and college administrators and of educationists. Lastly, in the case of some of the most pressing problems, it became apparent to members of the Committee that nothing short of a prolonged program of research could provide the answers to many outstanding questions, and that this inquiry could hope at best only to do some of the necessary ground breaking.

The winter and spring of 1925 were given largely to the gathering of enrollment data, to the construction and standardization of objective tests in French, German, and Spanish, which were widely administered during 1925–26 and 1926–27,[1] with highly interesting results, to the launching of special studies, to securing statements of the opinions of teachers on various questions and to formulating all projects in a more precise manner. In these and in dozens of other enterprises, indispensable aid was received from so many sources that it would be quite impracticable to enumerate here the names of the hundreds of persons who in many and diverse ways played an essential part in carrying on the undertaking. The list of projects given in the Appendix to this volume constitutes in itself a detailed statement of these activities and provides an exhibit of what the committee undertook and of the sources on which the present volume is chiefly based.

While references in the body of the volume give explicit information regarding the extent to which the various sources are used, it may be well to enumerate rapidly the studies carried on under the aegis of the committee that have been of particular value in the preparation of this discussion.

The inquiry into enrollment in secondary schools and colleges provided authoritative information on the age and the point of beginning the study of modern languages, on the actual length of the course for most students and on the distribution of students by years and by languages. The data gathered by Ben D. Wood on achievement in modern languages in New York and the geographically more comprehensive data of the same sort assembled by the Committee on Investigation of the Study provided an objective basis for an analysis of what is accomplished in modern language classes, of the results of present methods of classifying students and of the extent to which certain objectives are attained. An examination of numerous course outlines and syllabi, together with a canvass of the opinions and practices of a large number of selected secondary school and college teachers, supplied a basis for a study of various aspects of the modern language course as it is usually found. The reports of the experiments in learning to read carried through by G. T. Buswell, Charles E. Young, and James B. Tharp were invaluable in the light they threw on course-content and on method. The investigations of the effect upon English of the study of modern languages carried on by O. H. Werner and Clifford Woody and H. Hootkins were of service in illuminating an important aspect of the question of objectives. The analyses made by Gertrude Gilman, Grace and Harry Kurz, and Margaret and John Van Horne of the cultural material in current reading texts in French and in Spanish contributed definitely to a clarification of that situation, and various studies of prognosis, which are listed in the Appendix and have been assembled and interpreted by V. A. C. Henmon, were helpful in the discussion of the selection of students.[2]

As the notes to the text of this volume show, numerous general and special studies made independently of the Modern Foreign Language Study were utilized with great profit. Only two of these can be named here: the report of the Classical Investigation, Part I and the exceedingly valuable experimental study of the process of teaching youth to read a foreign language by Michael West of Dacca, India, entitled ***Bilingualism***. It is moreover plainly evident in the text of the volume that constant use has been made both of the methods employed and of the results arrived at by investigators in the field of education. The Committee had frequent need of counsel and of aid from workers in this domain and has profited greatly by the sympathetic interest and the active collaboration of members of departments of education in various parts of the United States. Some of the most substantial results have been achieved by active and close personal collaboration between experts in various fields of education and specialists in modern languages, to the advantage and satisfaction of both parties. In fact it is entirely clear to members of the Committee on

Investigation that such an arrangement provides the most promising basis for adequate inquiry and experimentation in all subject matter fields. Even though the educationist may be a good linguist or well versed in the sciences, he can not have the intimate feeling for the classroom situation in all its aspects which is an essential factor in all experimentation. The linguist or the English teacher, on the other hand, is usually unacquainted with the technical phases of experimental procedure in education and in applied psychology and wholly uninformed about the vast amount of research that has been carried on in this field, and it would usually not be economical for him to attempt to develop expert control of a new technique. It may be predicted, therefore, that most of the effective experimentation in secondary and college subject matter fields will be done in situations where two or more individuals, each a specialist in his own line, combine their resources, whether of knowledge and experience in the subject-matter or of expertness in educational investigations, and work as equals. Possibilities of this sort present themselves in colleges and in universities, and in city or state school systems which have departments of educational research. Indeed it is rather a reflection both on teachers of academic subjects and on educationists that such combined attacks on mutually interesting topics have not more frequently been undertaken, and the Committee particularly invites the attention of boards of education, of school superintendents and of principals to the opportunities in this direction that already exist.

It is to be regretted that the studies of the range and frequency of occurrence of syntactic phenomena in French, German and Spanish could not be completed, that the study of college entrance and graduation requirements was not finished, and that more experimental work on the relations between reading and grammar and composition and oral work in learning a foreign language could not be instituted. The obstacles in the way of these undertakings were numerous and varied, but they will eventually be swept aside by future workers in the field. The outlook for the prosecution of some of these projects is wholly favorable.

The Committee on Investigation enumerated in a report of progress to the Committee on Direction and Control on December 31, 1925, the questions, seven in number, which must eventually be answered for modern languages—and for all other secondary school subjects.

1. Who should and who should not study modern languages?
2. When should the subject be begun?
3. What is the minimum time below which the study of a modern language is unprofitable?
4. What should be, in language abilities and in other ways, the specific

objectives of the course for the three chief groups involved under present conditions:

(*a*) Those who study one year at most?
(*b*) Those who study two years at most?
(*c*) Those who study three years or more?

5. What should be the content of the course by years (grammar, vocabulary, reading matter, cultural content) for each of the three groups of students?

6. What classroom procedure must be followed in order that the objectives may be attained in the largest number of cases?

7. What standards of achievement may be reasonably expected at the various stages?

Not even the most sanguine members of the Committee expected the investigation to yield satisfactory answers to all these questions. Much remains to be done before any of them can be considered as definitely settled, but some real progress has been made. We now have abundant data regarding the time at which modern languages are actually begun and the length of time through which they are studied. We know in reasonably objective and comparable terms what is being achieved in the schools and colleges of the country in terms of grammar, composition, vocabulary and reading and we have exhibits from selected schools that provide an index of our best accomplishment under present circumstances. We are in possession of valuable studies of vocabulary, of idiomatic expressions, of the cultural content of reading texts, which enable us to consider critically the present modern language course and to plan more intelligently the course of the future. We have ascertained a good many facts about the training and equipment of teachers, how the time is spent in most classrooms, and in what activities teachers and pupils engage, and are in a better position to pass a critical judgment on current practices. While no one is yet ready to propose standards in the only terms in which they can be proposed at all concretely, that is in terms of attainment as measured by a specific and trustworthy scale or series of scales, we are now equipped to begin to establish standards experimentally and to eliminate some of the extraordinary variations in achievement between different schools and between classes in the same school which make of most of our present classes mere chance groups of individuals rather than classes which depart from a given point and travel toward a common goal. Lastly, the published results of this investigation will provide for modern language teachers numerous lessons in approaching educational problems in a systematic manner and in applying scientific methods wherever this is possible.

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## NOTES

1. In 1926 Italian tests were added to the group and printed, but the lack of time prevented a wide administration of these.

2. All of the investigations and activities referred to appear among the "Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages."

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# FIVE DECADES OF GERMAN INSTRUCTION IN AMERICA

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[From *MfdU*, XXXVI, 7, Nov. 1944, 359–370.]

In this paper the writer seeks to trace the trend of German instruction in America from 1900 down to date, then to discuss modern tendencies with their probable effects on the subject till the middle of the century. The writer's own interest in German dates from the early years of this century. He has been able to refresh his memory by scanning the early volumes of the *Pädagogische Monatshefte,* which first appeared at the turn of the century. Several other journals have contributed to the discussion of modern times.

The teaching of German in the twentieth century rests on certain significant events of the nineteenth century, which we must first note. In August, 1870, about 100 teachers of German in a meeting at Louisville organized *Der Nationale Deutschamerikanische Lehrerbund* to promote the best interests of German instruction in the United States. Probably not more than a tenth of the eligible teachers ever belonged to the organization at any one time, but non-members felt its stimulation. The *Lehrerbund* held a national meeting almost every year until World War I; the 43rd *Lehrertag* met in 1916. The *Lehrerbund* fostered *Das Nationale Deutschamerikanische Lehrerseminar,* founded in Milwaukee in 1878. Under the skillful direction of Max Griebsch the *Lehrerseminar* served the cause of German teaching faithfully until the war crippled its activity.

In 1883 the Modern Language Association was organized and it began at once to attack the problems of modern language instruction. The early meetings of the Association featured papers on pedagogical matters; since 1900 literary topics have filled the programs.

Through the years the National Educational Association has shown interest in the modern languages, at times, almost too great an interest for the peace of mind of the language teachers. In 1894 a Committee of Ten, selected by the N. E. A., reported on the status of modern language instruction at that time. The Committee favored the teaching of German and French in the upper four grades of the elementary schools.

In order to study modern language problems with greater thoroughness the N. E. A. turned to the M. L. A. for assistance. A Committee of Twelve, assembled by Prof. Calvin Thomas, studied the situation for nearly two years, then submitted a report to the Association in 1898.

Since this Report of a hundred pages influenced instruction in modern languages for twenty-five years, we must consider briefly its main features. Statistics and information regarding several hundred secondary schools presented a "picture of somewhat chaotic and bewildering conditions." In its recommendations the Committee kept in mind the needs of high school students who would, or would not, later attend college. Three values of modern language instruction in the high school were assumed: 1. to introduce the student to the life and literature of the foreign country; 2. to prepare for intellectual pursuits that require reading the foreign language for information; and 3. to lay the foundation for an accomplishment that may become useful in business and travel.

The Report reviews the methods of language instruction that prevailed in the nineties. The "Grammar Method" emphasizes grammatical principles and concentrates intensively on a small amount of reading which is translated carefully. The "Natural Method" consists of a series of monologs by the teacher, which lead to conversation between teacher and pupil in the foreign language. Reading follows the oral drill. The "Psychological Method" features the Gouin series, which cover nearly all phases of human existence. Unfortunately, it postpones literary study to a stage which high school students seldom reach. The "Phonetic Method" requires the teacher to study phonetics. It relies on oral instruction and gives the pupils a practical command of the language. It succeeds well in the German school, where ample time is devoted to a language, but in the American high school it leaves no time for literary study. The "Reading Method" features the study of texts from the beginning of the course, with abundant practice in translation at sight to teach reading in the original. Grammar, pronunciation and oral work are held to a minimum. This method introduces the student quickly into reading the foreign language, but it sacrifices many values derived from other methods.

The Committee outlines the reading for a high school course in language: 75–100 pages in the first year, 150–200 in the second, 400 in the third and 500 in the fourth. "At the end of the advanced course the student should be able to read, after brief inspection, any German literature of the last one hundred and fifty years that is free from unusual textual difficulties, to put into German a passage of simple prose, to answer in German questions relating to the lives and works of the great writers studied, and to write in German a short, independent theme upon some assigned topic." Verily, those were the good old days when teachers taught and pupils studied!

The M. L. A. accepted the Report of the Committee of Twelve at its meeting in December, 1898 and the N. E. A. accepted it the following summer. As we read this Report nearly fifty years later, we note that these twelve thorough teachers were attacking the problems of method and aim which we face today. We wonder whether the attainments of our own students prove that we have solved those problems better than did those teachers of 1898. The Report was published in 1900 and influenced teaching, also the sets of questions prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board.

The first fifteen years of the present century may be considered the heyday of German instruction in our country. The teachers felt that they were supported by a large element of Americans of German ancestry, who desired their own children to study German and who advocated the study of German in the schools. Many of the teachers were of German birth and spoke German readily. They had the conviction that they were teaching something of value to the young people of America, something which met with popular approval. At the turn of the century about 5000 schools taught German and over 600,000 pupils were enrolled.

In order to exchange ideas for the good of their profession the teachers of the *Lehrerbund* began in December, 1899, to publish the *Pädagogische Monatshefte* with Max Griebsch as editor. The editorial staff took as its aims: to promote the teaching of German, to improve the school system in general, to help the teachers and to present the reviews of books that are of interest to the profession. Helpful articles were solicited from the readers. In January, 1906, the journal began its Volume VII under the new name, *Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik,* and continued under this name until it suspended publication in December, 1918. For the years 1920 to 1926 the *Monatshefte* issued a single volume each year. Since the resumption of publication with Volume XX in January, 1928, the journal has been known as the *Monatshefte für deutschen Unterricht.* It is published at the University of Wisconsin under the editorship of Prof. R. O. Röseler, who took charge after the retirement of Prof. Griebsch in 1934.

Probably the most popular topic for discussion in the *Monatshefte* and among the teachers in those ante-bellum days of prosperity was the

Direct Method. We are almost justified in calling this time the period of the Direct Method. The Committee of Twelve had referred to the method as a "Phonetic Method." In 1882 the German scholar, Wilhelm Viëtor, disgusted with the methods of language instruction of his day, had published under a Ciceronian pseudonym, "Quousque tandem," a monograph, "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren." Viëtor had insisted upon thoroughness in the teaching of pronunciation, intensive study of reading, and the inductive teaching of grammar based on the reading. Many German schools adopted the Direct Method. In the Musterschule at Frankfurt am Main Prof. Max Walter developed the method quite successfully.

The Direct Method soon began to interest American teachers, who experimented with it and wished to learn more of its application in German schools. In 1908 the Board of Education of New York City sent Carl A. Krause to Germany for two months to study modern foreign language instruction there and to make a report to the city superintendent. In regard to the teaching of French and English at the Musterschule Mr. Krause reported that the pronunciation was good, questions were answered in the foreign language in complete sentences, grammar was taught inductively, and a vocabulary was acquired naturally and increased gradually. To explain the excellent results attained Mr. Krause cites three circumstances: 1. The pupils study language from six to nine years. 2. They work up to their fullest capacity. 3. Their teachers have received ideal preparation for the work. Mr. Krause would like to see American high school students study four-year courses in modern language under well prepared teachers. He suggests emphasis on certain phases of instruction in American language classes: pronunciation, oral work, real reading without translation, inductive presentation of grammar, study of realia. While Max Walter could banish the vernacular from the classroom, Mr. Krause would permit some English in American classes of German. However, the aim of the Direct Method is "reading ability through speaking facility."

In 1909 Prof. M. Blakemore Evans visited the Prussian schools and later offered his comments in an article, "Modern Language Teaching in the Frankfurt Musterschule" (Monatshefte, March, 1910). Prof. Evans objected to the crowding of the elementary language classes and to the caustic sarcasm and thunderous tones of the German teachers. He found the characteristic features of Max Walter's method to be: 1. Actions as the basis of the first oral practice; 2. Development of the active vocabulary. Walter in his elementary instruction began with the Gouin series, then advanced to situations involving dialogue. So interested did the pupils become that Walter had to check their ardor and they were mentally exhausted at the end of the hour. We are glad that Prof. Evans does not recommend the "Walterian strenuosity" for American schools; the sight of American high school students in a state of mental exhaustion would unnerve their teacher. Prof. Evans was impressed with German thoroughness: the German pupils spent at times eight or nine periods on the mastery of a single page. We note, however, that such thoroughness would limit the reading material to twenty pages for a year. In Prof. Evans' opinion, a liberal amount of oral drill with a thorough systematic development of an active vocabulary will remedy the careless haste of many American teachers and the slavish dictionary habits of the pupils.

Max Walter's visit to America in 1911 added its stimulus to teaching by the Direct Method. At the Teachers' College of Columbia University he taught German and French classes made up of pupils from the Horace Mann School. The classes were observed by university students and by language teachers of New York City. After each lesson Prof. Walter discussed problems of language method. He felt that he had demonstrated his method successfully even if the conditions of the experiment were somewhat unlike those of the Musterschule. Later he visited many American cities and met everywhere with an ovation. He liked the work of Max Griebsch at the *Lehrerseminar,* he praised the work of Dr. H. H. Fick at Cincinnati and of J. H. Henke at Evansville. With the American system or lack of system, of teaching modern languages Prof. Walter found these faults: there is too much translation and formal grammar, there are too many pages of undigested reading-matter, the classics are studied too early in the course, and the course itself is entirely too short.

One of the few who openly opposed introducing the Direct Method into American schools was William H. Price, New York State Inspector in Modern Languages. He showed that the Musterschule and the American high school differ in the scholarship and technique of the teachers, in the dimensions of the courses, in the character of the pupils and their attitude towards work, in the practical and educational needs of the pupils. Prof. Price would insist that pupils read and translate their text as homework and prepare to answer in German any questions in German on the content and form of the assigned reading.

Thus the teachers argued for and against the Direct Method while many probably taught with an eclectic method that drew from many sources. In those pre-war days life was not unpleasant for a teacher of German and he could look forward confidently to a career in his favorite field. This confidence was expressed aptly by Prof. Ernst Mensel: "It may safely be asserted that modern languages now occupy a pretty firmly established position." The statement appeared in the *Monatshefte* for April, 1914, just two months before the fatal shot at Sarajevo.

The European diplomats seem to have given no thought to the awful plight awaiting the American teacher of German when they plunged civilization into war. Even today, after a lapse of thirty years, if a teacher of German of that day is asked to state his experiences, he replies as did *pius* Aeneas to the queen of Carthage: "Dreadful is the woe thou bidst me recall; and I myself saw these things in all their horror, and I bore great part in them." Scholars of the German universities presented the German viewpoint to scholars in other lands. Max Walter appealed to American friends to view the conflict dispassionately. American teachers of German ancestry probably felt sympathy with Germany at the beginning, but when America entered the war, surely all saw the need of an American victory. Some non-Teutonic teachers of German became too patriotic to teach the language of Goethe and Schiller. All teachers of German were depressed to see the decline in German enrollments. One practical teacher advised keeping cool and preserving for America whatever of good there is in German civilization.

Broadminded men in many fields of activity regarded hostility toward the German language as futile in our struggle with Germany. A fair appraisal of the worth of German instruction was contained in a statement of P. P. Claxton, Federal Commissioner of Education (*School and Society*, 1918, p. 374). We quote him in part:

"I cannot agree with those who would eliminate German from the high schools and colleges of the United States at this time. . . . The fact that we are now at war with Germany should not, I believe, affect in any way our policies in regard to the teaching of the German language in our schools.

"For practical, industrial and commercial purposes we shall need a knowledge of the German language more than we needed it in the past. . . .

"The cultural value of the German language and literature and the writings of Lessing, Goethe, Schiller and a host of other poets and of novelists, historians and essayists remain the same as they were before the war and it is too great for us to lose out of our life, national and individual. The value of the scientific and technical writings of the German people will no doubt continue to increase. To rob ourselves of the ability to profit by them would be very foolish. The kinship between the English and the German languages is the same as it was before the war and the value of a knowledge of the history and philology of the German language for an understanding of English remains the same.

"I sincerely hope that school officers and teachers everywhere will take the broad and sane view of this subject."

Mr. Claxton's pious hope was destined to be unfulfilled. Early in 1918 practically all cities removed German instruction from the elementary schools. Everywhere German enrollments in the high schools began to wane. The New York City schools explained the reasons for dropping German: 1. High school students study science in English. 2. Technical experts can learn German at the university. 3. The leading scientific work is being done in the Allied countries. 4. Necessary German scientific books will be translated into English or French. 5. Trade with Germany will be small after the war. 6. German will help little in meeting business competition. 7. For business purposes there are enough Americans who learned German in their youth.

In Indiana the state legislature abolished German instruction in the elementary schools on February 25, 1919 and in the high schools on March 13, 1919. We note with interest that fighting in the World War had stopped several months before. The faculty of Franklin College and the Modern Language Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association adopted resolutions asking the legislature to repeal the ban on German teaching in the high schools. On March 6, 1923, the law was repealed. Three months later the United States Supreme Court made null and void the Nebraska law forbidding the teaching of any language but English in the Nebraska schools. Anti-German laws were automatically made void at the same time.

Before the war German had been one of the best taught subjects in the high school. When teachers of German were suddenly called upon to teach French or Spanish, they were in many cases poorly prepared for the new task. There was a great influx of students into Spanish classes, for it was thought that Spanish would open doors to commercial positions in South America. Many teachers of Spanish, however, realized that their sudden prosperity was not entirely a blessing, resting, as it did, on an artificial situation. But not all prospective students of German entered other language classes, hence the exodus from German meant a net loss in modern language enrollments.

To show the injury which the war brought on German instruction we compare the percentage of high school students in German classes before and after the war. In 1890, 11.5% of high school students were enrolled in German; in 1895, 12.7%; in 1900, 15.1%; in 1905, 20.3%; in 1910, 23.6%; in 1915, 24.1%; in 1922, 0.8%; in 1925, 1.4%; in 1928, 2.0%. Had it not been for the untimely blow of Mars, the German enrollments in the high schools might well have passed the 30 percentile by the present day.

In the midst of the war the modern language teachers created an organization to further their work. In December, 1915 a temporary federation on a three-year basis was formed. In 1919 the organization took the name, "National Federation of Modern Language Teachers" and adopted a constitution. Charter members were the Associations of the Middle States and Maryland, of New York State, of New England, of New Jersey, and of the Central West and South. Other groups were added later.

The Federation began to publish the *Modern Language Journal* in October, 1916. The Journal has been guided wisely by the following managing editors: E. W. Bagster-Collins, Algernon Coleman, J. P. W. Crawford, B. Q. Morgan, Charles H. Holzwarth, Henry G. Doyle, Edwin H. Zeydel, and Henri C. Olinger, who took charge at the beginning of 1944. Through the years the Journal has furnished a valuable bibliography of methodology. For this service we are indebted to these contributors: C. A. Krause, B. Q. Morgan, John van Horne, Edith Lucile Welch, Grace P. Young and James B. Tharp. Countless articles of value to teachers of German have appeared in the Journal, while news items, correspondence and book reviews have kept us abreast of the times. Teachers of German will long remember how the Journal encouraged the return of German teaching to American schools.

In the autumn of 1926 the teachers of German in New York City and the vicinity organized the Metropolitan Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of German. From this beginning the A. A. T. G. grew rapidly and became strong enough to sponsor a new journal, the *German Quarterly,* in January, 1928. The first editor of the Quarterly was Prof. Bagster-Collins, who had started the Modern Language Journal in 1916. His successor, Prof. Frank Mankiewicz, died in 1941 and was replaced by Prof. Curtis C. D. Vail, the present editor. The Quarterly has maintained a high standard of editing as a pedagogical journal and has seldom printed literary articles, however alluring they may be.

At the very time the A. A. T. G. was being organized, an investigation of modern language teaching in the United States and Canada was in progress. For some time the teachers of the languages had felt that the Report of the Committee of Twelve no longer represented the current view of aims and objectives. On December 31, 1923, a group of teachers met in Atlantic City to discuss the question of an investigation. The teachers were agreed as to the need of a study and the Carnegie Corporation was ready to finance the project. This was the origin of the Modern Foreign Language Study.

The Committee on Direction and Control effected its organization in the spring of 1924. Prof. R. H. Fife was elected chairman and a special investigator for each language was appointed; German was represented by Prof. C. M. Purin. Teachers from every section of the United States assisted the Committee. Prof. V. A. C. Henmon became the advisor in educational psychology. The general committee held three more meetings; the last was in September, 1927 with the Canadian Committee in Toronto. The task of the Study was to collect statistical data, to analyze objectives and test their validity, to make a survey of the training of language teachers and to conduct special researches in modern language problems.

The findings of the investigators were published in a report of seventeen volumes. Later Prof. Fife published an excellent summary of these volumes, an indispensable guide through the labyrinth of the Study. For our present purpose we exclude the volumes that relate to Canada and to French and Spanish and discuss briefly the remaining ones.

In Volume I Prof. Ben D. Wood reports on "New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests." In June, 1925, Prof. Wood gave the American Council Beta Tests to the classes in French and Spanish in the junior high schools of New York City. He discovered much overlapping in the classes and many wrongly placed pupils. In his report he expresses belief in the validity and reliability of the tests and states that "no teacher who has kept pace with recent developments can doubt their qualities." In June of 1926 Prof. Wood gave the American Council Tests in the same schools and was sorely disappointed on finding that second year classes composed of the same individual pupils did not make uniform progress. He attributes the variable rate of achievement to change of teachers, textbooks and methods.

Volume II of the Study presents the results obtained by Prof. G. T. Buswell in photographing the eye-movements of pupils learning to read a foreign language. The pupils first read English to demonstrate their natural reading habits with regard to fixations per line, regressive movements and average duration of fixation pauses. The progress in learning to read the foreign language was measured by photographic tests at regular intervals. Comprehension was tested in other ways. From the study Prof. Buswell arrived at the following conclusions: 1. College students reach a mature level of reading somewhat earlier than high school students and both groups much earlier than elementary pupils. 2. The students who think the foreign language as they read it progress more rapidly than those who translate. 3. There is no difference in degree of difficulty in learning to read German, French and Spanish.

Volume IV, "Enrollment in the Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States," was compiled by Carleton A. Wheeler and others with the cooperation of the Federal Bureau of Education. Statistics are provided for enrollments in French, German, Spanish and Latin. In 1925 the enrollment of students in German was small: 1.2% in high school and 10% in college.

Volume V, by Prof. V. A. C. Henmon, discusses the making of the American Council Alpha Tests and the results obtained when these were given to high school and college students. The tests measure attainments in vocabulary, in reading with comprehension, in grammar and in free composition. Prof. Henmon admits that these tests have their limitations.

Volume VIII, "An Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology," is the work of two Canadian scholars, Milton A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee. It evaluates articles and books on methods for a fifty-year period and may well be considered a necessary part of the teacher's equipment.

In Volume IX Prof. B. Q. Morgan presents the "German Frequency Word Book." Even before the Modern Language Study teachers of German had considered the selection of a vocabulary based on the frequency of occurrence. In 1923 Prof. Walter Wadepuhl had compiled a basic list from a study of the vocabularies of twenty German grammars. Prof. Morgan helped work over the Wadepuhl list and this was adopted by the Chicago M. L. T., but Prof. Morgan wished to profit from the vast work done by F. W. Kaeding in his *"Häufigkeitswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache,"* a compilation based on a count of nearly eleven million running words. Volume IX represents Prof. Morgan's selection of 2402 basic words found in the Kaeding book. In 1933 the A. A. T. G. accepted a list of about 2150 words based largely on the "German Frequency Word Book" and authorized the publication of the "Minimum Standard German Vocabulary" in dictionary form. Most authors of grammars now consider this standard list as basic for their work, and Prof. Peter Hagboldt in his Graded German Readers has shown its value for reworking reading material.

The "German Idiom List" (Volume X) was prepared by Prof. E. F. Hauch and fifty collaborators. A tentative list of 5000 idioms was checked against a million running words taken largely from prose selections used in American schools. The list in Volume X contains 959 idioms, of which the upper 500 are probably valid.

In Volume XIII Prof. C. M. Purin discusses the "Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages." On the basis of a wide survey Prof. Purin studied the courses in language and in teacher training of many universities and offered recommendations for improving the training of language teachers.

Prof. V. A. C. Henmon worked with seven other psychologists in a study of "Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages" (Volume XIV). The investigators tried to predict success in a foreign language from the pupil's general intelligence and from his ability in other subjects, but agreed that prognosis tests are not yet accurate enough for practical use.

Volume XVII presents twelve interesting "Studies in Modern Language Teaching" by various authors. Probably most significant among the studies is the first: "History of Modern Language Teaching in the United States," by E. W. Bagster-Collins. In a hundred pages the author traces the growth of modern language instruction from Colonial times down to our own day.

We come at last, and out of order, to Volume XII, "The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States" by Algernon Coleman. The spirit of the "Coleman Report," as it is often called, is well revealed in the list of activities suggested for the learner: I. Pronouncing well. 2. Understanding the speaking of the teacher. 3. Writing dictation. 4. Learning forms and syntax of grammar. 5. Studying intensively one or two pages of each assignment. 6. Acquiring active and passive vocabulary. 7. Reading aloud the text and answering questions on it. 8. Reading silently in and out of class. 9. Doing oral and written exercises based on the text. 10. Reproducing passages in English or in the foreign language. 11. In four semesters reading 550 pages in class and 350 pages outside. 12. Reading in English articles on the foreign country and reporting on them in class. 13. Reading translations of literary masterpieces and studying the author's life. 14. Noting the relation of the foreign language to English and to any other previously studied language. When Prof. Coleman and his committee observed that 85% of high school students pursue the study of a language only two years, they decided in favor of the reading objective, reached by extensive reading at the sacrifice of other linguistic values if necessary.

The "Coleman Report" brought sharp criticism from many teachers. In no uncertain terms Prof. W. R. Price voiced his objection to the amount of reading implied in the report. He rejected summarily the Coleman assumption that we learn a foreign language as we learn the vernacular. Prof. B. Q. Morgan suggested that Prof. Coleman had not been authorized by his committee to predicate unlimited reading; after all, the shortest road to real reading goes through the oral gate. Prof. Coleman defended the report and in time the discussion subsided.

The Modern Language Study seemed to validate the reading objective. In general, teachers have agreed that good pronunciation assists the reading process. As to grammar, some teachers favor thoroughness with an active use of forms and syntax; others are satisfied with accuracy in recognition. In the acquisition of vocabulary, the Direct Methodists favor the oral approach. Other teachers prefer various ways of approach, such as visible vocabularies, bilingual texts, or highly diluted reading material. Teachers disagree as to whether the student should read a few pages thoroughly or hundreds of pages rapidly. Probably many teachers prefer a middle course: they assign some pages for careful study and a larger number of pages for rapid reading. Experience has taught most of us that the mastery of only a few pages does not lead to fluency and that the skimming of many pages does not insure accuracy of comprehension.

No discussion of modern language teaching is complete without a mention of the disagreement that separates the modern language teachers from the educationists. Not only the languages, but also mathematics, English and science have come under fire from the educationists. As early as 1918 Prof. Franklin Bobbitt in his treatise on "The Curriculum" proved to his satisfaction that modern foreign languages are of little value for occupational efficiency, for professional purposes, for civic activities, and for proficiency in English. In another study a professor of education inquired of 600 graduate students whether they had enjoyed their modern language study and would like to continue it. He was shocked to learn that ninety per cent of the students had carried away a distaste for language study. If he had found ninety per cent of modern language teachers hostile to courses in professional education, would that have argued against courses in teacher training?

"The Generalist's Case against the Modern Languages" is stated by Prof. F. T. Spaulding in the French Review for December, 1933. He contends that modern language teachers attach to their subjects a degree of importance that cannot be justified in terms of any real value which the subjects hold for the vast majority of American boys and girls. He insists that modern language teachers teach their subjects by methods which tend to destroy even the importance which the subjects may justly claim. He admits that the languages are important for certain pupils, who should be guided into them. The languages should be so taught as to benefit the pupils who do not specialize in them. We teachers of German in 1944 do not ask that all high school pupils study language; we should be glad to bid Godspeed to all misfits in language study, if these can be detected in time. We are willing to strive for better methods and we trust we can benefit non-specialists in the languages.

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In World War I the teachers of modern languages had to defend themselves against the charge of inefficiency preferred by President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University. In World War II a most scathing denunciation of modern language instruction has been hurled by Major Francis Millet Rogers. After he had had to rely entirely on foreigners as helpers in the language activities of the war, he was ready to say: "As for the preparataion of individuals to take part in the war effort, the teaching of foreign languages in our country has been a failure." Teachers who replied to the attack suggested that the languages are not studied long enough to produce the efficiency desired by the major. Besides, almost no phase of American life was prepared for the war effort. The major's criticism has been disarmed to some extent by the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies. Students who work intensively for nine months in the Army Program acquire considerable skill in speaking the language. Only time will tell how long this skill will remain if it is not kept in practice.

There will be need of expert linguists in the period of post-war reconstruction, for surely the Allied Nations will cooperate to keep peace in the world. However, nationalism and isolationism may reduce the demand for language study. The optimists in our ranks who believe that the Army Method will usher in a golden age for language study may well be disappointed. The necessary experts in language will receive special training apart from our regular school classes. The Army Method makes four requirements: 1. students of high I. Q. are selected; 2. the classes are small; 3. often two instructors are used; 4. students have ample time. Besides, this method has a definite motivation and a definite objective. But when the American public is struggling with a war debt of astronomical proportions, will it support an expensive language program? The optimists will have to convince school administrators and college faculties of the need of increased facilities for instruction in the languages. We shall see!

The Army Program in language will for some time cause a desirable emphasis to be laid on oral practice. However, that influence will have so greatly diminished by 1950 that a new modern language investigation will be in order. Just as the Committee of Twelve in 1898 and the Modern Language Study in 1927 set reading as our principal objective in teaching the languages, so the new Study of 1950 will arrive at the same conclusion. The present writer is looking forward to it confidently and will be ready to register the proper surprise when the new Committee announces its discovery. It is manifest that the writer is an old reactionary and a confirmed pessimist. However, he hopes that the future for all language teaching in America will be brighter than he predicts it will be.

# HISTORY OF THE WARTIME AREA AND LANGUAGE COURSES

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## I

World War I introduced mental testing to the American people and elevated the study of psychology to a place of great respect in the college curriculum. World War II has called forth a number of experiments which will influence the college curriculum but none seems more certain to have a significant postwar effect than the foreign area and language course. The significance of this particular innovation probably lies mainly in what it has taught us about the ability of Americans, young and old, to learn foreign languages, but it has also given us startling demonstrations of how to improve our methods of teaching language and other subjects.

We prefer to fight our wars on somebody else's ground. This makes it necessary to learn about the places where the fighting will be done and most useful to be able to talk with the people we'll meet when we get there. The Army and the Navy know this and, early in the war, each branch of the service established schools to give officers and enlisted men this knowledge and facility. Three of these "area and language" programs have genuine significance for peacetime college education. They are the Foreign Area and Language Study Curriculum of the Army Specialized Training Program, the Army's Civil Affairs Training Program, and the Navy's School of Military Government and Administration. Of these three, the Foreign Area and Language Curriculum of the ASTP is undoubtedly of greatest postwar significance.

Most of the ASTP courses put a heavy emphasis on engineering, mathematics, and the sciences, but the Foreign Area and Language Curriculum was an outstanding exception to this rule. It came about in this way.

Early in the spring of 1942 the Provost Marshal General was directed to train a few hundred Army officers for military government duty in occupied territory. Someone had fished out of the files the lone manuscript copy of a report made by Colonel I. L. Hunt on our military government experience in Germany after the last war. Colonel Hunt had been the Officer in Charge of Civil Affairs in the part of Germany that was occupied by the American Army, and his report, when mimeographed and distributed, convinced a number of important military and civil officials that officers who were going to do civil affairs or military government work (the terms are synonymous) needed to study the subject. A School of Military Government was accordingly set up on the campus of the University of Virginia at Charlottesville to train these officers, and a little bit later a Military Government Division was established in the Office of the Provost Marshal General in Washington to recruit officers and assign them to training. From the beginning the two units worked in closest cooperation, and until March 1, 1943, when the Civil Affairs Division of the War Department General Staff was created, the Military Government Division and the School of Military Government had a monopoly on development of plans for military government.

One of the earliest determinations of this team was that Army officers assigned to civil affairs would have to be supported by small forces of military police under the command of commissioned and noncommissioned officers trained for the special problems of occupied territory. The training of these occupational police officers and noncoms was the task of the Military Government Division and therefore of its chief, Colonel Jesse I. Miller. Colonel Miller, a Washington, D. C. lawyer with a habit of working for the Government for nothing and a genius for getting other people to serve his client at the same price, helped organize the School of Military Government and then put on a uniform to head up the new Military Government Division. The establishment of the ASTP was big news at the moment when Colonel Miller took on the job of training top men for occupational police duty. With an eye out for a bargain the Colonel was calling on the Army Specialized Training Division (ASTD) in no time, proposing that a curriculum tailor-made for occupational police officers be included in the ASTP. When the Director of the ASTD recovered from the shock (when before did any branch of the Army miss a chance to set up its own training school?), he accepted the challenge but on condition that Colonel Miller draw up his own curriculum. And so the bargain was struck for the training of 2000 enlisted men, the top half of whom would later enter Officer Candidate School, the remainder to become noncommissioned officers.

## II

Colonel Miller knew what he wanted his soldiers to learn, but he wasn't sure that he knew how to maneuver college professors into teaching the things he wanted them to, instead of the things they were used to teaching. To help him bring the academicians into line, he went to the Bureau of the Budget and got himself a college professor (your reporter) —strictly on a loan basis.

The first step in working out the curriculum—defining the objectives of the training—was quickly done. The soldiers were to come out of the training with knowledge about the place likely to be occupied and the people who live there, ability to speak the principal language, and an understanding of the problems of an occupational police force. The problems of police administration are of no interest here for they have no particular significance for peacetime college education. It is the area and language instruction that is bound to make an impress on the postwar curriculum.

Important early decisions which controlled the details of curricula writing were: that the course should be planned for nine months, that most of the men would be trained for service in Japan or Germany, and that at least a handful of men would be prepared for any place where an American Army might conceivably take and hold territory. The planning of the language instruction presented no difficulty; the problem was dumped bodily in the lap of the American Council of Learned Societies. More truthfully, it was dumped in the lap of Mortimer Graves, Administrative Secretary of that organization. It was a case of a man with a mousetrap that looked better to the War Department than any other on the market. Long before this Graves had decided that Americans could learn foreign languages as readily as Europeans, and furthermore had made up his mind that America needed a good supply of people who collectively could speak each of the important languages of the world.

To correct the national deficiency in language competence, Graves thought up, sold to his Council, and organized the Intensive Language Program. One of the foundations that hands out money for education put up enough for a comfortable working fund, and the smart and energetic Executive Secretary of the Linguistic Society of America, J. Milton Cowan, was hired to whip the newly conceived Intensive Language Program into a going concern. Starting in 1941, by the fall of 1942 when Colonel Miller was planning his training program, the Intensive Language Program was under way in 18 colleges and universities, offering instruction in 25 languages, few of which had ever been taught in American colleges before.

The languages introduced to the American people in the Intensive Language Program were the ones which Graves in his armchair and Cowan in his Pullman berth figured lay square in the path of the American armies that were bound to move about the globe—Hausa (spoken by the natives about Dakar), Arabic (lingua franca from Morocco to Persia), modern Greek, Burmese, Malay, Thai, Japanese, Chinese, and 17 more. These were languages for which America had very few or no teachers; in French, German, Italian, and Spanish, we had long passed the pioneering stage and the colleges stood less in need of help.

The principles at the bottom of teaching in the Intensive Language Program were: concentrate on the fundamentals of the language and forget the refinements of the literature; get the student to think in the language he is studying and keep him from twisting it into the shape of the English he is used to; start with the spoken language and drill, drill, drill. This was exactly the kind of language teaching Colonel Miller wanted in his training program. Graves was made a consultant to the Military Government Division and Cowan a consultant to the ASTD and between them they wrote the best of the Intensive Language Program experience into the requirements of the ASTP Foreign Area and Language Curriculum—concentrate on the colloquial form of the language; explain the grammar when the effort to talk turns up something that needs to be explained; get the voice instruction from a native, if at all possible; and practice talking and listening up to the point where fatigue dictates a rest.

This is the pattern of language instruction that went into effect in the ASTP Foreign Area and Language Curriculum, and it is the pattern that was followed slavishly in the Civil Affairs Training Program (CATP) to be described later. And it is the pattern of instruction that a great many teachers and educational leaders scattered all over the country expect to revolutionize language study and teaching in the future. But more about that later.

The foresight of Graves and his associates provided Colonel Miller with a big part of his training program ready made. No one had done a similar job for the other big part of his problem, "area characteristics." The significant knowledge about foreign peoples and the way they live is scattered through a dozen academic disciplines; the college professors had never gotten around to the job of integrating that subject matter into a single course of study. To do this job of selection and integration, Colonel Miller brought in as consultant Harold W. Stoke, now President of the University of New Hampshire but then Professor of Political Science and Acting Dean of the Graduate School at the University of Wisconsin. Stoke gathered around himself a half dozen men representing a wide range of interests in the study of contemporary civilizations and the group worked out a standard curriculum for the study of foreign areas.

Colonel Miller combined Stoke's statement with his language requirements and a course of study in police science and law enforcement systems, and so made up a curriculum for the training of his occupational police personnel. This document was adopted virtually without change by the Director of the ASTD and distributed to colleges and universities in the spring of 1943 as the course of study to be pursued in the Foreign Area and Language Study curriculum of the ASTP.

Colonel Miller's curriculum had a significance far beyond the value that lay in his blueprint for area and language instruction. It called not only for a demonstration of knowledge and teaching ability, but also for a display of imagination, cooperation, and capacity for management. "This program is unprecedented in college and university education," said Miller's document. "It is urged most emphatically that the needs of this program cannot be met by courses or by sections of courses now being offered in the social science curricula of the colleges. Methods and materials of instruction must be devised to achieve the specific objectives of this training. . . . A special faculty group in each institution, including one of the language instructors, should be designated to plan the details of the program. Members of this group should be chosen for their enthusiasm for the program, competence for teaching, and inventiveness in the production and use of materials."

The announcement of the curriculum started a stampede among the colleges and universities of the country. Everyone wanted to be in on the training. Some, perhaps, were attracted only by the fact that it offered employment for a part of the faculty not otherwise used in Army and Navy programs, but many forward-looking educators grasped eagerly at the challenge to round up a team of faculty men who would reorganize and join together their knowledge in an effort to explain the important things about a place, a people, and a culture. Reviewing the plans for the training, the president of one of the country's leading universities said, "This is the kind of thing I've wanted to get started for years. I couldn't set up an experiment like this for $100,000. We want this program even if it costs us that much money because it's worth that much to this university."

The curriculum attracted not only the educational world. The rest of the Army heard about it and within six months after Colonel Miller submitted the basic document, the 2000 men that he had asked to be trained were increased to 15,000 on demand of other branches of the service. The requirements for police science disappeared from the curriculum in most of the schools because not of value for the personnel in training, and the course became in most institutions strictly "area and language." The blueprint for language instruction, which was written by Graves and Cowan, stood essentially unaltered throughout the period of the training, but the requirements for area instruction underwent substantial changes. The original document submitted to the ASTD by Colonel Miller lingered on in the affections of the academic world, however, and at this moment supplies the basic features of the area and language curriculum which many colleges and universities expect to make available to students after the war.

## III

While all of this was going on, Colonel Miller had also to plan the training of officers for military government or civil affairs work. These officers, holding top positions, would direct the activities of the occupational police officers and noncoms trained in the ASTP. Some of these officers were in training at the School of Military Government at Charlottesville, but the capacity of that school was much too small for the need, and the Provost Marshal General, under Colonel Miller's direction, set up Civil Affairs Training Schools (CATS) in ten universities during the summer of 1943. These officers went first to an Army post for instruction in theory and practice of military government and then to the CATS for area and language and application of military government principles to the situation which would be encountered in the occupied area. This called for three or four months in the university if in training for service in Europe; six or seven months if destined to serve in the Far East.

The language requirements for this program were lifted bodily from the ASTP curriculum and the specifications for area study were Stoke's original blueprint with necessary modifications. The officers trained in the CATS were, of course, much more mature than the enlisted men in the ASTP, and many of them had records of genuine achievement in various professions and callings. This fact necessarily gave a twist to the area instruction in the CATS, resulting in much more emphasis on the industrial, commercial, and professional aspects of the area than was found in the ASTP schools.

All of this unprecedented development in the training of Army personnel had its counterpart in the Navy. Immediately after the start of the war, an enterprising group of the Columbia University faculty confronted naval authorities with a proposal to set up a school at Columbia for the training of Navy officers who would later be assigned to civil affairs duties in occupied territory. The Navy fell in with the proposition, accepted almost *in toto* the curriculum proposed by the Columbia faculty, and gave its blessing to the Naval School of Military Government and Administration which Columbia set up. As in the two Army programs just discussed, the heart of the Columbia curriculum was intensive study of the foreign language and a thorough inquiry into the characteristics of the place where the officer would go and of the people he would deal with when he got there. In addition, a substantial amount of attention was given to policies and methods to be adhered to in administering occupied territory.

The Navy course was originally fixed at 48 weeks but later cut to 36, and the number of officers in training was usually somewhere between 100 and 150.

From the academic point of view the Navy school at Columbia was in several respects a better educational experience than either the ASTP program or the CATS. The Navy officers constituted undoubtedly the most capable and most serious bunch of students ever assembled in such numbers on one campus. The Navy was more liberal than the Army in letting the faculty have its way as to subjects to be covered. The length of the training period let the faculty pursue their subjects as far as their academic consciences dictated. But the Navy training was localized at Columbia University and its influence in the educational world was accordingly much more restricted than in the case of the ASTP and the CATS which together penetrated 57 different institutions.

* * * * *

# 2 : VALUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

## THE DISCIPLINARY VALUE OF MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY

[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1900.]

(pp. 7–8) What we have called the general disciplinary value of linguistic and literary study is well understood the world over, and has long been recognized in the educational arrangements of every civilized nation. The study of a language other than the mother tongue requires the learner to compare and to discriminate, thus training the analytic and reflective faculties. The effort to express himself in the unfamiliar idiom, to translate from it into his own, makes him attentive to the meaning of words, gives a new insight into the possible resources of expression, and cultivates precision of thought and statement. Incidentally the memory is strengthened and the power of study application developed. In time such study opens the gate to a new literature, thus liberalizing the mind and giving an ampler outlook upon life. Through literature the student is made a partaker in the intellectual life of other times and other peoples. He becomes familiar with their manners and customs, their ideals and institutions, their mistakes and failures, and with the artistic forms in which the national genius has expressed itself. When he leaves school, such knowledge not only enriches his personal life, but makes him a more useful because a more intelligent member of society. It exerts a steadying, sanative influence, for it furnishes him with standards based upon the best performance of the race everywhere. For us Americans, with our large confidence in our own ways and destiny, there is special need of the wisdom that comes from familiarity with the life, literature, and history of the great makers of European civilization.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGES AS MENTAL DISCIPLINE: A SURVEY

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## I

With the long history of the concept of "mental discipline" [1] in education we shall not here concern ourselves. It is a truism that until the twentieth century this doctrine was not seriously challenged by any large-scale movement. It will be our purpose, rather, first to consider the status of the doctrine among educators at the beginning of the twentieth century and to trace its changing fortunes in brief outline from that time until the present. Closely bound up with the question of mental discipline is the one of transfer of training, in which most experimentation on the subject has been done. Several of the typical experiments in transfer of training will be mentioned. The literature of the subject is, in our opinion, of such an extent [2] and of such uneven quality, that an attempt to make an exhaustive outline would be beyond the scope of the paper and of doubtful worth in any case. In conclusion, we shall attempt to evaluate the present standing of the concept and to make a few personal observations on the subject.

## II

At the beginning of the present century, the important question was not whether or not there was such a thing as mental discipline, but rather, what subjects could best promote it. It was at that time that the place of Latin in the curriculum was being seriously challenged by the modern languages.

> This change [the growth of modern language study] is a part of a more general movement, that has not taken place without a great deal of active and even violent discussion, the outcome of which seems to strengthen the theory that no one thing is a *sine qua non* in education, but that a certain amount of work properly done by a certain faculty of the mind will give about the same increase of strength and readiness, whether the work be done in ancient or modern languages. . . .[3]

That language study should be abandoned entirely seemed unthinkable, for the strictly utilitarian had not yet successfully invaded the schools.

> There are utilities higher and utilities lower, and under no circumstances will the true teacher ever permit the former to be sacrificed to the latter. This would be done if, in its zeal for fitting the child for self-support, the school were to neglect to lay the foundation for that higher intellectual and spiritual life which constitutes humanity's full stature. This foundation is made ready only if proper emphasis be laid . . . on those studies whose subject-matter is the direct product of intelligence and will, and which can, therefore, make direct appeal to man's higher nature.[4]

French and German were considered by Dr. Butler as "indispensable" in the secondary school;[5] and Babbitt declared: ". . . I would never forget that the conscious analysis of processes of thought involved in grammar study is a very valuable means of discipline, for which no other one thing is a substitute. . . ."[6]

This complacent assurance became ever more violently assaulted, however, by the growing favor of such innovations as activity schools and child-centered curricula. The shock of the war had the inevitable effect of bringing all accepted values into question, and by 1920 it seemed evident that the old system had broken down and a new one was in the process of evolution.[7] The concept of general mental discipline was forsaken by many, who preferred to follow the rather atomistic psychology which proclaimed that ". . . the overwhelming sum of evidence is for the specificity of learning."[8]

In the interesting book published by H. O. Rugg in 1916,[9] the early experiments in transfer of training are summarized statistically. According to Rugg, there was no experimental work on transfer of training done before 1890. In the period 1890–95, there was only one experiment, that of William James on memory. Data for other periods are given as follows: 1896–1900, 2; 1901–1905, 6; 1906–1910, 15; 1911–1916, 9; making a total of thirty-three experiments in the period 1890–1916.[10] "Under conditions of training studied in these . . . investigations we can answer unequivocally. *There is distinct evidence for the so-called transference of training.*"[11] In only one case, however (Dearborn, 1910), did the experimenter deal with foreign language material: in this instance, the memory for foreign and English vocabularies.[12]

Eight years later (1924; cf. footnote 9) Thorndike made what seems to have become the classic experiment in transfer of training. The results are interesting for the language teacher, if only because they have been cited so often since in order to refute the claim that languages or, indeed, any other high school subject, train the mind.

> By any reasonable interpretation of the results, it appears that the physical sciences are equal, if not superior, to languages and mathematics as now taught in our American cities, in respect of mental discipline from any point of view. . . .

> The expectation of any large differences in general improvement of the mind from one study rather than another seems doomed to disappointment.[13]

In 1927 Thorndike and two confreres refined some of the details of this experiment and repeated it, but arrived at much the same conclusion.

> [The two investigations] agree in disagreeing with the traditional doctrine that Latin, algebra and geometry are the prime disciplinary subjects of the high school. The average for Latin [and French] . . . and algebra is lower than the value for physical science in both series for persons of the same sex and initial ability.[14]

Meanwhile, the report of the Classical Investigation was published,[15] and, as might have been expected, the committee's findings were favorable to the study of Latin, though frequently condemning practices of Latin teachers. In addition to primarily utilitarian objectives in the study of Latin, the committee formulated four "disciplinary objectives," agreed on by a large number of Latin teachers, as follows:

> 1. The development of certain desirable habits and ideals which are subject to spread, such as habits of sustained attention, orderly procedure, overcoming obstacles, perseverance; ideals of achievement, accuracy and thoroughness; and the cultivation of certain general attitudes such as dissatisfaction with failure or with partial success.[16]
> 2. Development of the habit of discovering identical elements in different situations and experiences, and of making true generalizations.[17]
> 3. The development of correct habits of reflective thinking applicable to the mastery of other subjects of study and to the solution of analogous problems in daily life.[18]
> 4. Increased ability to make formal logical analyses.[19]

Subsequent experiments did little to solve the growing complexity of the question,[20] which, in dividing the mass of language teachers into two hostile camps, perhaps opened the way to the wide-scale elimination of languages from the curriculum. O. H. Werner carried on an experiment during the school year 1925–26 using high school pupils and college freshmen, the purpose being to see to what extent the study of a modern foreign language increased various abilities in English, such as speed of reading, detection of errors, etc. His most important conclusion was that those students with a relatively high I.Q. profit by foreign language study, but such study may be positively harmful for those of lower I.Q.[21]

Smith, Mead, and Peters attempted to investigate the effect of the study of Latin upon reasoning ability, from which experiment they drew the following conclusions:

> 1. More Latin students gained proportionately in reasoning ability than did non-Latin students.

> 2. Non-Latin students gained more on the average than did Latin students on tests to measure reasoning progress.
>
> 3. Results in several schools are not constant either as regards ability to improve in reasoning or the amount of the improvement.[22]

Limper concludes from a study made to determine the effect of having studied a foreign language on college freshman English that ". . . the superiority of those who had studied a foreign language two or more years over those who had not studied any foreign language was greater in most cases than the improvement made during a year of college rhetoric." [23]

S. W. Jack found "a clear relationship between a knowledge of English grammar and terminology and ability in the study of a foreign language." [24]

We may summarize this period of the twenties as one in which the old idea of mental discipline as a general training of the mind was definitely unacceptable to many educational leaders. Under the name of transfer of training, the concept was narrowed down to specific traits which some thought might be transferred by the study of particular subject-matter. Here opinion was certainly not unanimous either as to whether any transfer occurred, the extent to which it occurred, or whether such transference was automatic or not.[25]

The conclusion of several recent educational psychology texts on this point is interesting. Pressey, for example, writes:

> From all these findings, conclusions regarding transfer values in the study of foreign language appear to be somewhat as follows. . . . As regards the modern foreign languages the situation seems fairly clear. As they are taught at present, such values are too slight to give these languages any educational vindication; they must find their justification in their own intrinsic worth.[26]

Bode says:

> . . . the weight of the evidence is all against the formal discipline of tradition. The experimental evidence is against the idea that the "powers" of the mind can be trained like the muscles, so that the strengthening of these powers will automatically insure a high degree of efficiency in new and unrelated material. The facts of physiology indicate that acts like perceiving, remembering, willing, reasoning, etc., are only responses in which the whole nervous system is directed towards a particular situation. . . .[27]

And Mursell concludes:

> There is no general mental capacity which can be increased by formal exercise, and then used anywhere and everywhere regardless of content. There is only an increasing efficiency in dealing with a certain kind of situation.[28]

In the face of this general condemnation of the concept of mental discipline, it is interesting to observe how, during the thirties, the voices of educationists harking back to premises inherent in the concept have been growing stronger.[29] As early as 1928 Morgan was writing:

> There is hardly another subject [than languages] in the high school which calls so constantly for precision, definiteness and accuracy in detail, while admitting incessant self-examination. . . . One of the principal attributes of a trained mind is its ability to assimilate new knowledge and to retain what it has learned: ability to memorize and to remember. Many hard things have been said about the "parroting" of the language classroom: apparently it is noble to remember in general, but ignoble to remember in particular.[30]

Of great interest for their bearing on this problem are the reports of experiments published by C. H. Judd and others under the title, *Education as Cultivation of the Higher Mental Processes*.[31] Although none of the experiments dealt with foreign language material, the conclusion is of general interest and applicability, we believe.

> When the mind analyzes a situation, selects important factors through abstraction, and generalizes by discovering the same important factors in other situations, something is happening which is wholly different from that which is characteristic of the lower forms of conscious experience. At the higher levels transfer is typical, not exceptional.[32]

> The psychology which concludes that transfer is uncommon or of slight degree is the psychology of animal consciousness, the psychology of particular experiences. The psychology of the higher mental processes teaches that the end and goal of all education is the development of systems of ideas which can be carried over from the situations in which they were acquired to other situations.[33]

Judd (p. 199) quotes with approbation an article by A. L. Lowell in which Lowell speaks of "mental processes that are capable of being transferred widely, or . . . the moral qualities of diligence, perseverance, and intensity of application which can be transferred indefinitely." In his book of observations, *What a University President Has Learned*,[34] Lowell poses the question: "Do we not make the mistake of looking upon the classics, and in fact all languages, at school too much from the standpoint of utility rather than as a mental discipline. . . ."[35]

Dr. Bagley and the Essentialists represent, probably, the most recent and most organized statement of the challenge to "progressivism." In his statement of the Essentialist platform[36] and in his speech before the Fifth Annual Foreign Language Conference,[37] Dr. Bagley has stressed the need of a return to the logically organized, "hard" subjects, for the sake of the training they give the mind. He insists that the racial heritage is of more importance than the individual experience in the educative process.[38]

## III

It need scarcely be pointed out that we are back to the view held at the beginning of the century, and we are likely to see mental discipline once again enthroned as the supreme good of education. Apparently the results of "modern" education have been found wanting by a good proportion of the teaching profession.[39] It is an interesting speculation as to what relationship there be, if any, between this reversion to an older tradition and the growth of the authoritarian spirit noticeable throughout the world. It is probably the natural reaction to the orgy of "freedom" characteristic of the twenties, and that it deserves, as such, to be studied seriously is undeniable. Certainly no such convenient label as "fascistic" will sufficiently catalogue it. Nor can we justly speak of it as the whim of old men, who have a sentimental attachment to what was once considered truth. In this connection, the work of Dr. R. M. Hutchins at Chicago may be mentioned as typical in many respects of the new spirit. In the place of the idea that the child be allowed complete freedom for his development, the concept of the necessity of discipline first in order to enjoy freedom later is now being cultivated. Hutchins writes: "What is needed for free minds is discipline, discipline which forms the habits which enable the mind to operate well"; [40] and Bagley notes: "Among the essentials of the Essentialist, then, is a recognition of the right of the immature learner to guidance and direction when these are needed either for his individual welfare or for the welfare and progress of the democratic group." [41]

The task of drawing general conclusions resolves itself, we believe, into personal opinion. It is undeniable that most recent experimentation (Judd and his fellow-workers form an important exception) tends to disprove the validity of the concept of general mental discipline. Yet, as we have seen, there is something so appealing in the idea, perhaps because of its very logicality, that educators have been loath to abandon it, and very recently, some have openly proclaimed it again in the face of adverse experimental results.

Fundamentally, it is a question of initial I.Q., perhaps. That is, the intelligent student will find good material for the exercise of his mind in the logically organized subject-matter fields, whereas the dull student will be only hopelessly bored. It is certainly wrong to think that all subject-matter offers the same type of training. The evident solution is to put the two types of pupils into two different types of schools.

It is obviously true that the accomplishment of every task requires a degree of mental discipline, but it is equally clear that all minds cannot be trained to the same degree in the same direction.

## NOTES

1. B. H. Bode, *Conflicting Psychologies of Learning* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1929), pp. 44, defines the concept of mental discipline as "the doctrine that training in a given field or subject matter . . . will give increased power in an unrelated field. . . ." E. H. Babbitt, in an address read before the Modern Language Association of America, "How to Use the Modern Languages as a Means of Mental Discipline" (in *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, A. M. Elliott, Calvin Thomas, et al., Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1893), pp. 126–127, indicated a common extension of the concept to include the training of "faculties." "I wish to understand by mental discipline the exercise of some faculty of the mind, which results in increasing the power or readiness of that faculty. . . . Of the faculties which we wish to strengthen on account of their universal application to all studies, the principal are the memory and the judgment." Although the faculty psychology has been definitely abandoned, at least by psychologists, cf. J. L. Mursell, *The Psychology of Secondary School Teaching* (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1932), p. 88, this definition seems to express more nearly the connotation given the term by its modern exponents.

2. Mursell, *op. cit.*, pp. 93 f., mentions a recent summary of ninety-nine studies on transfer made between 1890 and 1927 prepared by P. T. Orata, *The Theory of Identical Elements* (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1928). The output has not appreciably slackened since 1927, it seems.

3. Babbitt, *op. cit.*, p. 125. Cf. p. 133: "After a great deal of experience in teaching both ancient and modern languages, I have come to the conclusion that the modern have certain advantages as a medium for drill in translation which go far towards making up for their inferiority as a means of discipline in some other respects."

4. N. M. Butler, *The Meaning of Education*, rev. ed. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915), p. 65. Cf. Bode, *op. cit.*, p. 35: "According to this [formal discipline] theory, the chief benefit of training lies in the development of power and not in the training of specific abilities."

5. Butler, *op. cit.*, p. 252.

6. Babbitt, *op. cit.*, p. 131.

7. Cf. Robert Herndon Fife, "A Survey of Tendencies in Modern Language Teaching, 1927–33: Retrospect and Prospect" (in *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, A. Coleman, ed., Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934), p. 8: "Ten years ago the American educationist emerged from his war-time experience with an interest in objectives that had been quickened to a remarkable degree. The school curriculum was scrutinized for the social ends which it was to serve, and a wave of dialectical criticism threatened to sweep out of existence all subjects which did not seem adapted to modeling the next generation after the social patterns that post-war America set up as its ideals."

8. Mursell, *op. cit.*, p. 96.

9. *The Experimental Determination of Mental Discipline in School Studies* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1916).

10. *Ibid.*, p. 9. In discussing the findings of these early experiments, Rugg, *op. cit.*, says (p. 24): "The statistical results indicate almost unanimously that training does transfer. Within the limits of the investigations, the amount of transfer does not seem very pronounced."

11. *Ibid.*, p. 20.

12. *Ibid.*, p. 14.

13. E. L. Thorndike, "Mental Discipline in High School Studies," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* XV, 1, 2 (Jan., Feb., 1924), p. 98. Cf. pp. 96 ff.: "The facts . . . if corroborated by similar experiments, prove that the amount of general improvement due to studies is small; that the differences between studies in respect to it are small, so that the values of studies may be decided largely by consideration of the special training which they give; and that the languages have no claim to preeminence."

14. C. R. Broyler, E. L. Thorndike, and E. Woodyard, "Mental Discipline in High School Studies," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* XVIII, 6 (Sept., 1925), p. 382. S. L. Pressey, *Psychology and the New Education* (New York and London: Harper and Brothers, 1933), p. 518, tabulates the results of this study as follows: Relative Influence of a Year's Training in Various High School Subjects, in Increasing Ability in Thinking. 1) Alg., geom., trig., etc., +3.0; 2) Civics, econ., psych., soc., +2.9; 3) Chem., phys., gen. sci., +2.7; 4) Arith., bookkeeping, +2.6; 5) Lat., Fr., +0.8; 6) Phys, train., athl., +0.8; 7) Bus., draw., Eng., hist., music, shop, Span., 0.0; 8) Cook., sew., sten., —0.1; 9) Bio., zool., bot., physiol., etc., —0.2; 10) Dram. art, —0.5.

15. The Classical Investigation Conducted by the Advisory Committee of the American Classical League, *Part I General Report* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1924).

16. *Ibid.,* p. 55. Note 49, p. 56, tabulates the answers of 62 psychologists to the question: "Do you consider that these traits, if developed in the study of Latin, are subject to spread in fields outside of Latin?" 38 answered yes unqualifiedly; 14 that transfer occurs under definite conditions and to a limited extent; 5 that transfer is slight; 2 deny it takes place; 3 are doubtful.

17. *Ibid.,* p. 59: "The study of Latin offers peculiarly favorable conditions for the development of this habit because of the numerous contacts it affords with the other linguistic experiences of the pupil. . . . The development of this general habit is the function of the specific training in recognizing and utilizing the elements common to Latin and to the various linguistic experiences with which the application objectives are concerned."

18. *Ibid.,* p. 60. The committee here cites Thorndike's experiment as contradicting this objective. The point is left open.

19. *Ibid.,* pp. 61 f.: "The process of classifying grammatical constructions and referring them to rules is in essence a deductive syllogism, and it furnishes a type of training analogous to that received in the study of formal logic . . . but we are of the opinion that ability to make formal logical analyses is not a suitable conscious objective of the school course in Latin."

20. D. R. Smith, A. R. Mead, and C. C. Peters, "The Transfer of Translation Thinking," *School and Society,* XXV, 639 (March 26, 1927), p. 381, col. 1: "Thorndike, Woodworth, James, Wang, Ruediger, Squires and Rugg all found that there was transfer of training in various fields. In some cases the transfer was considerable, in others, negligible. But that transfer existed was thought possible."

21. O. H. Werner, "Influence of the Study of Modern Foreign Languages on the Development of Abilities in English," *Modern Language Journal,* XII, 4 (Jan., 1928), pp. 259 f.: ". . . our net conclusions are as follows: (a) That it is difficult to defend the general statement that the study of a modern foreign language will always aid in the development of desirable abilities in English;

(b) That, in general, the evidence indicates clearly that the study of modern foreign languages aids in the development of speed and comprehension in reading, especially with high school pupils; (c) That the evidence is favorable to the conclusion that the study of modern foreign languages aids in the development of ability in grammar and in the development of vocabulary; (d) That it is doubtful whether the study of modern foreign languages aids in the development of ability to punctuate correctly, to discover faulty sentence structure, or to discover speech errors and to correct them; (e) That evidence indicates rather clearly that the lower the I.Q. of a modern foreign language pupil, the greater the probability that the study of a modern foreign language will actually interfere with his attempt to develop desirable abilities in English. . . ."

22. *Op. cit.*, p. 384, col. 1.

23. L. H. Limper, "The Effect of Having Studied a Foreign Language in High School on the Ability of a College Freshman to Use English Correctly," *School Review,* XXXV, 9 (Nov., 1927), p. 680.

24. "The Modern Language Student vs. English Grammar," *Modern Language Journal,* XIV, 2 (Nov., 1929), p. 98.

25. Cf. Report of Classical Investigation, p. 56. Mursell, *op. cit.*, pp. 93 f., summarizes the results of the 99 studies on transfer made between 1890 and 1927 thus: ". . . ten of them showed little or none, about half showed an appreciable amount, while about eleven per cent showed negative transfer."

26. *Op. cit.*, p. 508.

27. *Op. cit.*, pp. 53 f.

28. J. L. Mursell, *Principles of Education* (New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1934), p. 80.

29. Cf. Fife, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

30. B. Q. Morgan, "The Place of Modern Foreign Languages in the American High School," *School and Society,* XXVII, 686 (Feb. 18, 1928), p. 188, col. 1. In a digest of the article published in the *Modern Language Journal* ("Why I Believe the American High School Should Teach Foreign Languages," XX, 1, Oct., 1935), Morgan writes (p. 24): "I am one of those old-fashioned persons who believe that education not only supplies information but also trains the mind, and that the continued effort to memorize and recall, to compare and contrast, to combine and relate disparate groups of facts, is one important aspect of mental training." Cf. statements in the same spirit by F. E. Hawkins, "Foreign Languages as an Educative Influence," *Modern Language Journal,* XVIII, 6 (March, 1934), p. 397; and H. V. Wann, "Youth Problems and the Study of Modern Foreign Languages," *ibid.*, XX, 6 (March, 1936), pp. 334 f.

31. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936.

32. *Ibid.*, p. 200.

33. *Ibid.*, p. 201.

34. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

35. *Ibid.*, p. 58. Chap. III, "Tools and the Man" (pp. 42-58), is particularly interesting to the language teacher.

36. "An Essentialist's Platform for the Advancement of American Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* XXIV, 4 (April, 1938).

37. Held at the School of Education, New York University, Saturday, November 19, 1938.

38. Cf. Judd, *op. cit.*, pp. 177 f.: "The individual who has been trained to understand systems of ideas is able to think and to guide his behavior more

independently than is the individual who has been trained to deal only with the accidental combinations of ideas which appear in his limited personal experience." Butler, *op. cit.*, p. 377: "It is the merest sciolism to suppose that each child can or should construct the world anew for himself."

39. Cf. Bagley, *op. cit.*, 241 f.; and Judd, *op cit.*, p. 4.

40. R. M. Hutchins, "The Free Mind," quoted in the *New York Herald Tribune*, Sunday, Oct. 30, 1938, XI, pp. 1 and 38.

41. *Op. cit.*, p. 252. A. N. Whitehead, who, of course, has the conservative English background, made the same point in 1929 (*The Aims of Education*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, p 47): "The only avenue towards wisdom is by freedom in the presence of knowledge. But the only avenue towards knowledge is by discipline in the acquirement of ordered fact."

# AIMS AND VALUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY [*]

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[From *MLJ*, XIV, 8, May 1930, 631–638.]

Aims of study and teaching are not static; they change with every epoch, its corresponding philosophy of life, its valuation of human achievement. Every generation breaks some of the tables of value in order to set up new ones; and if I am not very much mistaken we are just now entering such a period of transition, when it is our duty to pause, to look about, and to consider our whence and whither. For what purpose do we teach and study foreign languages? Two distinctive aims come to my mind at once: the practical aim and the humanistic aim, both again to be subdivided into their intensive and extensive types.

Under an *intensive practical aim* I understand a formal training of the pupil in memorizing, systematic grammar, and specific mental exercises, the general profits of which were overstressed in earlier times and are now largely discredited by psychology. For grammar is anything but logical, in fact, it is the lack of logic which makes the language of a people interesting, since it usually discloses their peculiar and characteristic thinking and emotional reactions.

There remains on the credit side of this intensive practical aim an acquiring of exact working habits, a setting and working out of tasks which have been defined in good pedagogical forms during a long period of tradition in modern language teaching. No doubt students profit by it; they can not bluff and loiter in the study of languages, for it is as exacting as mathematics.

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[*] A critique of *The Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*, M. V. O'Shea, Dept. of Interior, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin XVI, Washington, D. C., 1927.

The *extensive practical aim* is the actual acquisition of languages for the purpose of active and passive communication with foreigners through correspondence, conversation, and reading. At a time when our philosophy of life was determined by the sociological theories of Taine and the scientific theories of Darwin this aim dominated over all others, and during the subsequent development of Impressionism a teaching procedure was evolved which under the name of natural or direct method held undisputed sway almost to our day. In America, however, the battle pro and con was waged for decades, and after Greek and Latin had gone by the board, modern languages were again and again attacked and threatened with extinction or restriction. It was no doubt with the idea of strengthening their position that the *Modern Foreign Language Study* was created and began its work in 1924. One of its reports, an exceedingly painstaking and laborious inquiry into the *Extent to which those who have pursued French, German, or Spanish in high school or in college or in both read these languages after graduation*, gives us an interesting account of the average American's present valuation of modern language study.

Fortunately for our purposes, the author of this report is not a modern language teacher and can, therefore, not be called biased in favor of this subject. He is a professional educator and probably reflects the attitude of the general public. Four main topics were covered in questionnaires sent out by his office:

(1) whether or not high school and college graduates think the time devoted to the pursuit of modern foreign languages was well spent;
(2) whether or not any literature has been read in the original since graduation;
(3) whether or not literature in foreign languages that had been studied in high school or college has been re-read since graduation;
(4) whether or not any literature presented originally in a modern foreign language has been read in translation.

I shall briefly present the results of this inquiry.

I. 85% of the graduates of the years 1903, 1908, 1913, 1918—and it is their opinion which I shall quote in my subsequent figures—think that the study of modern languages was of value to them. This percentage —I must admit—came as a shock to me, since it seems unexpectedly high; the numbers were highest from well-established Eastern and Southern institutions, such as Harvard, Yale, Amherst, Syracuse, Brown (especially in French), and from women's colleges such as Vassar, Mount

Holyoke, Smith, Bryn Mawr, etc. In contrast to these, however, only 26.6% of engineers reported in favor of modern languages.

II. 49% of former students of French, 31% of former students of German report that they have read foreign books since graduation, i.e., over one-third, which Mr. O'Shea thinks is a small percentage. I miss for proper comparison similar figures concerning mathematics or history; e.g., I should like to know how many graduates have solved mathematical problems or read historical matter on current political and diplomatic questions. Statistics of this kind are of small significance as long as we cannot evaluate and weigh the answers. They are telling only when we have comparative data by way of 'control.'

Dean John F. Manahan, for instance, in an unpublished manuscript (according to Mr. O'Shea) tabulates the results of an inquiry addressed to approximately 350 holders of the doctor's degree, asking them whether they have read foreign languages since taking their degree. The answers are neither particularly enlightening nor very encouraging. Somewhat more interesting, however, is the table which classifies the percentage of the reading according to subjects:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Chemistry | 89.5% | Mathematics | 58.3% |
| History | 80 | Geology | 40 |
| Physics | 77.8 | Education | 15 |

III. The purpose of these aforesaid graduates in reading was:

| | French | German |
|---|---|---|
| Research | 14.5% | 23 % |
| Travel | 13.5 | 11 |
| Business Correspondence | 9 | 8.5 |
| Present Occupation | 16 | 19 |
| Enjoyment | 47 | 38 |

"It is worthy of mention in passing," comments Professor O'Shea, "that about one half of our correspondents from all classes say that they have read foreign languages for 'personal enjoyment' and only a very small percentage have read them for other purposes. Those who have charge of modern foreign language study in our country ought to consider the significant fact that the percentage of graduates of both high school and college who read foreign languages for research, travel, business communication, or the pursuit of present occupation is very small."

Professor O'Shea apparently disapproves, but I say: rejoice, teacher, jubilate, you have achieved the impossible, your graduates read for the pursuit of happiness and they are—no doubt—better citizens for it. It is almost too good to be true! Our enthusiasm is considerably dampened, however, when we read that:

IV. 64% have *not* re-read anything of the material we gave them, although to be sure the majority who did so were seeking personal enjoyment.

V. Whether we are responsible for the fact that 72% read *no* foreign language material in translation since they graduated I am unable to decide. But:

VI. 66% felt a distinct need of foreign languages in certain situations of their life owing to the fact that they had not acquired such a mastery of any foreign language that they could employ it serviceably in the situations in which they were placed, and this need was felt

| | |
|---|---|
| in conversation | 40% |
| in correspondence | 25% |
| in travel | 20% |
| in research | 15% |

The ratio of these figures is very significant for the average American point of view, for it is precisely in the situation where the use of the spoken word is needed that the average person will feel his inferiority more pointedly and wishes he had learned *der, die, das* or his *verbes irréguliers* a trifle better. In the case of correspondence he can turn to a good friend, in a case of research he can hire a translator.

Mr. O'Shea minimizes the reality of this need in explaining, "these correspondents were able to handle themselves in the situations with greater or less ease and success, but they would have had greater success and greater ease if they had had control of foreign languages." I should venture to say just the opposite: persons feeling constrained on account of not speaking the foreign language with ease lose not only 50% but 100% of the value, because they do not get the foreigner's point of view whether travelling or in business, as any one can testify who has been in Latin American countries and hears comments of the natives on Gringo methods of carrying on negotiations.

Yet, in spite of my disagreement, I should be inclined to minimize the *relative* importance of the conversational need. I have even become calloused to the tragicomedies enacted every four months in my institution by students who have postponed their doctor's examination on account of not possessing the required reading knowledge for research purposes. Persons who absolutely need the foreign languages for important reasons will finally apply themselves and learn them after they have grasped the fact that they can't do so by just playing around with them; for they are no easy and playing matter, and I am convinced in spite of Professor Thorndyke's assertions that the learning of a foreign language is *not* easier between twenty and forty than between ten and twenty.

The very core of the matter is laid bare in the following statements of the O'Shea report.

> Our pupils inherit the tradition, more or less clearly and definitely transmitted to them, that a foreign language can not be of much service to them. When they visit a European country, the natives they come in contact with in the hotels and shops can speak English, so that an American in Europe can get along quite comfortably and can see and do everything he wishes without much difficulty, even if he does not know a word of any foreign tongue. Again, the Europeans who come to our country do not stimulate our young people very greatly to master a foreign language. If they are educated Frenchmen, Germans, Russians, or Italians they can and do use our language, so that we do not feel the need to master their several tongues. If they are immigrants, our pupils do not see why we should wish to employ the language they use. The present writer has heard students ridicule the immigrants with whom they have come in contact; and unfortunately, our young people do not often meet the better-educated representatives of foreign countries whom they might admire for their intellectual and personal qualities. . . . So we can not deeply impress our young people with the claim that they will be handicapped in daily life if they can not speak a foreign tongue; but it should be possible to make them appreciate that they could extend their knowledge and increase their personal enjoyment if they could read modern foreign languages. It seems clear, then, that in the teaching of these languages in America, the principal objective should be to train our pupils so that they can *read* them understandingly, appreciatively, and readily.

With this last proposal I heartily agree. I do, however, wish to protest most emphatically against the evaluation of modern foreign languages first and foremost according to the standards of expediency and according to the wishes of our young people. If a course in automobile repairing were given in high schools or colleges and a census were taken as to its usefulness for later life one hundred percent of the graduates would very likely testify as to its undisputed value to them. I myself would vote 'yes.' Nevertheless, should I wish to see mathematics or English or languages dropped to make room for it, even if I never looked at Euclid or Shakespeare or *Les Lettres de mon Moulin* again?

Here two ways clearly part, that of many professional educators who would build up a curriculum merely according to the needs of pupils, as determined through statistical inquiry on a majority basis, and that of those who believe that the aims of education must be determined to a great extent by the highest ideals of national life.

If I am not altogether wrong the compass of our present philosophic outlook on life is swinging from its materialistic and positivistic orientation to a more idealistically determined one. After the disillusioning experience of the Great War and the ensuing period of cynicism, the peoples of this earth are beginning to realize that the maxim of the survival of the fittest is not only impractical and unprofitable but also rather un-ethical. Our matter-of-fact course steered us into the abyss, and hope and faith are needed to help us out of it, and now suddenly resources are discovered in the human soul the development of which, it is to be hoped, may lead us on a saner and straighter course. The time of a new humanism is dawning, and that means that the development of the individual will assume a new and greater importance, as also the role he plays in the enrichment and humanization of society.

This is, no doubt, an epoch of awakening national consciousness, the taking stock of the cultural treasures of one's nation; and I mean culture in the widest sense, culture which does not restrict itself to a sterile refinement. National culture can be determined only by comparison with the culture of other nations. To know what instrument I am to play in the concert of nations I must know the members of the orchestra. To know intimately my own language I must know others. Therefore the process of studying languages is enriching, defining, enlightening. Awakening one's linguistic consciousness means deepening one's linguistic conscience. Even if the particular foreign language is dropped and forgotten the result remains. Even if the reading of literature is discontinued after school there remains at least the memory of it. And just because no reading may be done later it is all the more necessary that it be done now when the soul is young and impressionable.

Coming in contact with foreign ways, moreover, removes that narrow provincialism which considers everything and everybody of a different complexion funny, crazy, or inferior. The organism of a foreign language must be understood as the emanation of a different national soul, with a right to existence equal to our own. The appreciation of being different may be *learned*, since people with wide human associations see others more objectively, enjoy others more intensely, and give *themselves* more genuinely, without that Main Street inhibition of not daring to be what they are.

All this I should classify under the *intensive humanistic aim* with which the *extensive humanistic aim* is closely connected, since it means the comprehension of foreign nations and cultures not so much for one's own benefit as for the benefit of the brotherhood of nations. An objective understanding of their conditions, their development, their history, their national virtues and failings will further a real internationalism and a mutual cooperation, and ultimately make this world a better place to live in.

And how may this appreciation be gained more readily than by access to the best cultural achievements and expressions of those nations? For this purpose we must train our students to learn to read understandingly, appreciatively, and easily, and we have not always achieved this aim.

I turn to the O'Shea report once more for a passage with which I am heartily in agreement:

> The first principle that teachers of foreign languages should take account of is that reading and grammatical diagnosis are psychologically contrasted and antagonistic processes. Reading may be called—using popular terms—a synthetic mental process, while grammatical diagnosis is an analytical process. In order that a pupil may learn to read readily and with understanding and appreciation words must function merely as symbols, and not as objects of explicit attention in and for themselves. Further, individual words cannot, as a rule, function independently; groups of words must function as unities; meaning is usually denoted by phrases, clauses, sentences or paragraphs, rather than by words in isolation. If the reader, then, is made verbal minded, in the sense that he is habitually explicitly aware of each and every word in the reading material, he is retarded or slowed down in the reading process, and his understanding and appreciation of the content of his reading are interfered with. In order that he may read easily and with understanding and appreciation, he must grasp groups of words as unities and these groups must function marginally and not focally in his attention.
>
> How can a group of words be made to function as a unit and marginally in the reading process? Only by repeated use of the group as a unity with attention focussed primarily upon meaning rather than upon the anatomy of the words or the grammatical relation.

So far so good. Our educator has learned how to shoot, but his parting shot is—to my mind—aimed at poor game.

> Would it not be advisable to give pupils in high school and students in college experience in the reading of contemporary more largely than classical literature? Would they not be stimulated to read French, German, and Spanish in the original if they could be got into the way in school and in college of reading material that would bear upon the problems which they encounter in their everyday activity? If a student before graduating from high school or from college could take a newspaper or current scientific, historical, political or sociological book or magazine and read it readily and understandingly, would he not be encouraged to continue his reading in these fields after graduation?

"Wenn man's so hört, möcht's leidlich scheinen." Yet I need not tell you that whoever has mastered a language to the degree of reading a work of literary excellence with comprehension will also be able to overcome the difficulties of more specialized vocabularies. But Professor O'Shea does not even take into account the repeated assurance of his constituency that they have read for pleasure, wishing to impose on us and on our students the task of reading for some less frivolous purpose, for even though he does not say it in so many words the whole tenor of his report shows clearly that his aim is distinctly of a practical nature.

These principles are matters of conviction, but—as I said before—not so much of personal conviction as of an epochal philosophic orientation. We are experiencing in our day the passing out of a materialistic age and the hope for the dawn of a new humanistic idealism which calls for a revision of our aims of learning and teaching. Should not the teacher heed this call? Should he not be the leader and banner bearer? Where there is faith there is a will and where there is a will there is victory. And it seems a victory worth fighting for.

## CULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

[From *Final Report of the Committee on Modern Foreign Languages,* Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts, 1933, pp. 6–7.]

I. Cultural Values. * * * *

The modern languages are necessarily a valuable instrument of culture in the modern world as being the most exact and direct medium for acquiring a knowledge of the modern humanities. (Fouret, "Les Humanités Modernes.") "By culture we mean that training which tends to develop the higher faculties, the imagination, the sense of beauty, and the intellectual comprehension." (As defined in the report of the committee on "Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System in Great Britain" (1928): pp. 46–52; 255–262.)

II. Educational Values. * * * *

1. Increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English. * * * *

2. Increased power to learn and use other languages and to understand their structure and interrelation. * * * *

3. Improvement in habits of articulation and clear enunciation, and increased alertness of the ear. * * * *

III. Practical Values. * * * *

1. The breaking down of the barriers of provincialism and the building up of the spirit of international understanding and friendliness, leading toward world peace. * * * *

2. Increased resources for employment of leisure and enjoyment of life. * * * *

3. Provision of the most necessary instrument for occupations involving the use of modern languages.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SCHOOL AND LIFE

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[From *Personal Growth Leaflet*, No. 117, The National Education Association, Washington, D. C., pp. 6–13.]

* * * * *

The more broadly educational values in the study of foreign language are worth the careful consideration of every highschool student. The most significant fall under seven headings: [1] Foreign language study helps to make one's view of his own language more objective, thus cultivating linguistic sensitivity and building language power, which is the most universal of all educational objectives. [2] Such study affords opportunity for rethinking and clarifying one's experience in other terms. [3] It introduces a rich laboratory of essential linguistic material into the classroom. [4] Because of the human, intellectual, and social links binding the world together—recognized by our government as important in world understanding—and because of derivation from common sources, our English language cannot be dissociated from the other great languages of the western world. [5] Such study is important because the average highschool student has frequent foreign-language contacts thru radio, movies, opera, foreign-born fellow townsfolk, alien visitors and expatriates, and similar experiences. [6] Since only 15 percent of our present adult population are highschool graduates, we may consider that group the leaders in our social and intellectual life. To be effective leaders they should have as much direct foreign-language experience and firsthand knowledge of the best thought of other peoples as possible. [7] The important and useful literature of other nations has by no means been translated into English adequately, accessibly, or completely. From all three points of view translations are often so unsatisfactory that educated leaders of a democracy should consult the originals.

*Language Power thru Comparison:* Let us consider these general educational benefits one by one. Strengthening one's language power makes one a more useful citizen. Foreign language study will help, for it will teach one to see his language as others see it, and also to see other languages in a new light. It will show him that the structural processes of his own language do not alone condition the laws of thought. By comparing his own tongue with another—noting inflections; peculiar word order; differences in meaning of related words [English *actual*, French *actuel*; English *lust*, German *Lust*]; the existence of a single word in one language for a concept expressed in another by a whole phrase [English *brother and sister*, German *Geschwister*]—he will learn what is fundamental in language as such and what is merely of secondary importance.

*Rethinking Thoughts:* An effective means of acquiring new language power is that of restating one's experience in as many different ways as possible. Certainly it would be possible to express "I felt as tho I had been struck by a thunderbolt" in at least a dozen effective ways. Similarly when encountering a pithy paragraph in one's reading, it is helpful to analyze it for meaning. The student of foreign language can go a step further by attempting a translation of the paragraph into the other language and thus often arrive at more exact understanding. For in this searching process he must exercise nice discrimination and choice of words or phrases, and he must observe shades of meaning and "color" of words. That is, it becomes necessary for him to rethink the entire thought in other terms—intellectually a most enjoyable and stimulating experience.

*Language Is Its Own Laboratory:* A study easily adaptable to the laboratory method has advantages over others. For teaching the natural sciences, schools annually invest millions in delicate instruments, chemicals, and the like. Without them biology, chemistry, and physics would be bookish studies. In the social sciences many primary facts of poverty, unemployment, vagrancy, or crime cannot be brought into the school laboratory in the same sense. If he is to study them at firsthand, the student must go into "the field"—the various neighborhoods of the community. The student of language, however, has his laboratory constantly within reach. For language, one of the world's most remarkable man-made growths, is an accretion of thousands of years and the ever-developing product of a vast unfolding in accordance with the natural laws dictated by the genius of a race.

*Ties That Bind the Nations:* Despite war and upheavals the world is becoming smaller. Rapid communication thru plane and radio brings the civilized nations closer together. It is an ideal of our government to cultivate the intellectual ties of international life with increasing diligence. For this purpose the Division of Cultural Relations of the State Department was established in 1938. For the present this Division is doing admirable work linking the Central and South American nations more closely to us intellectually and culturally. Knowledge on the part of the individual citizen of the language and customs of our neighbors to the south, will go far to promote this noble work. When we consider further that not only Spanish and Portuguese, but also French, Italian, and German come from the same parent language as English, their value for us is enhanced.

*Opportunities To Use Foreign Language:* Hardly any citizen lacks occasion for some use of a foreign language. Short-wave broadcasts by prominent foreigners, American radio programs featuring foreign language or music, imported motion pictures, are so many challenges to utilize knowledge of foreign tongues. America, the friendly land of opportunity for immigrants, harbors millions who speak some other language as a second tongue or as their only adequate means of communication. This is truer now than ever, since our American haven of freedom has become a source of new hope for countless refugees. Finally no people travel as extensively as Americans. That their journeys become more profitable if the travelers have some grasp of the language of the country visited is clear. Horizons widen, attitudes toward others improve, our own environment is more appreciated.

*Leadership Demands Knowledge:* Of the 76 million American adults, about 11 million or 15 percent have graduated from highschool. By virtue of their superior knowledge and training, these citizens should act as leaders of thought and examples of good citizenship for their less fortunate fellows. Certainly one such "dynamo" for every group of seven is not too much in a vast democracy of free men and women. Among other qualities these leaders should have firsthand knowledge of the thought of the world, of the writings and utterances of the great men in government, science, and literature, present and past. Only with such knowledge at our command can we reasonably use and assimilate what may be good and reject what is bad. Democracy lives by those very processes of intelligent selection constantly and alertly practiced by all its constituents.

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# WILL TRANSLATIONS SUFFICE?

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[From *Language Leaflets*, No. 10, National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, Washington, D. C., 1940.]

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Among the ill-founded clichés that seem to be peculiarly persistent among educational writers or speakers who discuss the study of foreign languages—particularly among adherents of the "foreign languages are all right, but—" school of educational opinion—none is more widespread, or more fundamentally untrue, than the claim frequently heard that "all the good things published in foreign languages are available in English translation." The corollary is of course "Why bother to learn to read foreign languages when everything you need is accessible in English translation?"

It is significant that these and other assertions of the same general tenor are usually made by people who have no first-hand contact with materials published abroad—in fact they usually know no foreign languages themselves. When reminded by someone who really knows something about the materials existing in foreign languages that "all the good things," or even a substantial part of them, are *not* accessible in English translation, they sometimes reply, "Well, the available translated material is sufficient for *my* purposes!" The logic of this is of course unassailable. The "translations are available" argument is also a main reliance of those who aim to damage the study of foreign languages and wish to appear to be "objective" while delivering the blow. But a far larger group simply repeat the time-worn cliché because it hasn't been challenged vigorously enough, or often enough, to send it to the oblivion it deserves.

The most recent appearance of this hoary old misstatement is in *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy*, published by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. In this book an otherwise sound discussion of the importance of reading ability in English and foreign languages as a necessary tool in the acquisition of knowledge is marred by the qualifying clause "although the availability of translations of practically all important writings makes the possession of a secondary reading language a matter of less than primary importance." While one is a little puzzled by the phraseology used (can anything that is "secondary" be other than "less than primary"?), the implication seems reasonably clear: that a favorable situation with respect to translations of foreign material makes reading ability in foreign languages of little or no importance. If that is the intent, it illustrates again the truth of a saying of the late Henry Suzzallo to the effect that we should always be on our guard against dogmatic statements by persons who have "wandered away from their own sphere of experience and information."

Translations are *not* sufficient, either in quantity or quality, to satisfy the demands of historical, literary, or scientific scholarship. Neither are they sufficient to provide a satisfactory supply of materials necessary to enable non-specialists really to understand foreign ways of life, civilization, and culture, or to satisfy the general cultural demands growing out of interest in reading books written in or about other countries. Furthermore, even if translations were available, especially in creative literature, the most skilful of translators can provide only an imperfect reproduction of the original work. Ideas may be roughly or even accurately approximated, but characteristic savor is always lacking.

In the various fields of science, mention is often made of the accessibility of abstracts in English of the results of research done abroad. But Dean Frank C. Whitmore of the School of Chemistry and Physics, Pennsylvania State College, says:

> Such abstracts, however, usually act only as a "teaser" and make the reader wish that he could get all the details out of the original article. If that article is in German or French, the well-trained chemist goes and reads it. If it is in one of the languages which he does not read, he will generally go to the original article to try and "dig out" what he can from the formulas, which are the same in all languages, fortunately. In my case I have spent many hours struggling through Italian articles with the help of a dictionary. I have often wished that I had had even one year of Italian in college. It would have saved me many precious hours since.

And Professor C. H. Brannon of the Department of Zoology, North Carolina State College, writes:

> A fundamental prerequisite of all research is a thorough knowledge of the literature published in one's own and related fields. If one is not intimately conversant with the foreign literature on the subject, much duplication and waste of time is usually the result. Where no actual duplication occurs the lack of knowledge of the results obtained by foreign workers hinders international cooperation and causes a loss of helpful contacts which would greatly facilitate research.
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> Those who depend upon the translations of others are almost helpless. In the field of biology we have a publication, entitled *Biological Abstracts,* which attempts to abstract in English the results of biological research from all over the world. However, these abstracts are usually limited to a few sentences. Satisfactory

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translations are difficult to obtain and are frequently misleading or actually worthless unless translated by one who has both a thorough knowledge of the foreign idiom and an intimate understanding of the subject under discussion.

When one comes to *belles-lettres* and creative literature generally, the obstacles are still more noticeable. Something is lost in making the transfer that only those who know both languages can appreciate. "Translations accentuate the defects of writing and destroy sheer beauty," wrote the Frenchman Rivarol, and the Italians have a proverb "Traduttore, traditore" ("Translator, traitor") that may be freely rendered "Never trust a translator." "Translators even of moderate value are rare and translators of excellence as rare as poets," writes Hilaire Belloc in his *On Translation.*

An English foreign language teacher, Professor H. G. Button, speaks of "the erroneous belief that the words of a language have a purely intellectual significance which could be expressed equally well in any other language. . . . The German idea of *Freiheit* is by no means synonymous with the English idea of *freedom,* and both are different from the French conception of *liberté* . . . a German *Abendessen* is no more like an English supper than a German *Zug* is like an English train, or a German *Zeitung* like an English newspaper. This would be realized much sooner if the approach to modern languages were less exclusively rational and more concrete. Once we perceive that every language has a peculiar quality of its own, that it must be understood in and for itself and that no other language is just the same shall we begin to understand the truth of the great saying attributed to Charlemagne, that a man has as many souls as he has languages. Charlemagne did not mean to imply that the man who could say the same thing in ten different languages was ten times as good as the man who could only say it in one, but rather that the man who knew several languages was thereby enabled to view the world in as many different ways."

"Without some knowledge of foreign languages," writes H. R. Huse in the *German Quarterly* (May, 1940), "we are caught in our verbal subjectivism, like a squirrel in a cage. The Englishman who thought the French a silly people because they call their mothers 'mares' and their daughters 'fillies' represents a state of perfect linguistic innocence. Likewise the child who thought pigs were rightly named 'because they are such dirty swine' and the elevated soul who thought the 'divine' rightly named."

More than three centuries ago Sir Francis Bacon wrote in his *Advancement of Learning:*

> And lastly, let us consider the false appearances that are imposed upon us by words, which are framed and applied according to the conceit and capacities of

> the vulgar sort; and although we think we govern our words, and prescribe it well *loquendum ut vulgus sentiendum ut sapientes,* yet certain it is that words, as a Tartar's bow, do shoot back upon the under-judgment. So as it is almost necessary in all controversies and disputations to imitate the wisdom of the mathematicians, in setting down in the very beginning the definitions of our words and terms, that others may know how we accept and understand them, and whether they concur with us or no. For it cometh to pass, for want of this, that we are sure to end there where we ought to have begun, which is, in questions and differences about words . . .

Even in one's own language, it seems, attempts to reproduce thought in slightly different terms, or to paraphrase or abstract materials, create difficulties not only of esthetic appreciation but even of understanding. Popular writers have discovered the importance of Semantics (long a commonplace to linguists) and are "taking it up in a serious way," as for instance in Stuart Chase's *The Tyranny of Words.* And if words and phrases are open to misconception and misunderstanding in the mother tongue, how much more so if they must be transmuted from or into a foreign tongue! [1]

The Dean of the School of Education, University of Kansas, Dr. Raymond A. Schwegler, writes:

> We are advised to be content with translations. Translations are always inadequate; they distort and omit. Like a mirror of faulty glass, they absorb some parts of the original and lose them, while they twist the rest and return a caricature of the truth. They obliterate the inner tempo of the original, they miss the subtle emphases which often are the key to the real intent. They are death-masks that grin stupidly with empty sockets devoid of life. To understand the other man you must know and speak his tongue. There is no adequate substitute, and any groups that fail to do so doom themselves to hopeless provincialism. Modern foreign language study therefore meets the acid test of long-range utility. If asked what the study of these things does to the student, we may confidently answer: "It humanizes, it broadens sympathy and insight, it multiplies the avenues of self-expression and the release of inner tensions."

Another Professor of Education, Horace A. Hollister of the University of Illinois, wrote in his *High School and Class Management* [2] published some years ago:

> We prefer to think of man as gradually approaching, through processes of assimilation from all race sources, an ideal manhood, rich and full in human sympathy and comprehension. In this sense each language gained should represent a long stride toward the attainment of such an ideal. Be this as it may, language, as the greatest of all human arts, must ever stand among the first of those attainments which are to be acquired through the training of the school. For not only is it the vehicle for the most of human thought and feeling, but it is that very thought and feeling itself put into concrete form, thus to pass currency in all our everyday human interchange of these mental commodities.

> Now just what part is a foreign language to play in conducting this exchange? Simply this, that he who already has and can use intelligently the foreign coin need not go to the exchanger. For him the coin will not be subject to the exchanger's usury. . . . For those who master a modern tongue there is direct and intimate contact with growing, throbbing, intellectual life. Here live the arts, the constructive abilities, the politics, the religion, and the ethics of a contemporaneous national group. On this basis one may establish sympathy, new systems of principles, the technique of an art; and out of the study and use of the foreign tongue may gain also that better mastery, through comparison, of the structure of language—the technique of language art.

That even the finest translation cannot fully render the spirit of the original is well known to all students of foreign literatures. Let those who doubt this ask some really qualified person to compare Shakespeare in the original with Shakespeare in French translation; or Tolstoy in the original Russian and in English translation; or even Dante in Italian and Dante as rendered by Cary, or Longfellow, or Norton, or Grandgent, fine performances as all of these translations are; or Goethe's *Faust* in German and in Bayard Taylor's translation. Is "Stille Nacht" precisely the same as "Silent Night"— beautiful as both versions are? Would anyone claim that Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address" or "Second Inaugural" could possibly be the same in any other language, no matter how able the translator? No; for there is an indefinable something about a work of genius that is inherent in and inseparable from the language in which it is conceived. Take it out of that setting, that form of expression, and you have something that may be good, or even beautiful, but it is *something else.*

This was well brought out by Professor Samuel Eliot Morison, the historian, in his Commencement address at the College of Wooster in 1939, when he said:

> As part of my experience I count that of friends and pupils. Many of my contemporaries agree that the best part of our education was our classical training; many of my pupils in American history have regretted too late that they missed in their high-powered million-dollar high schools what we were forced to take in our old-fashioned New England schools and hardscrabble academies. Why too late, you will ask? Why can't anyone take up the ancient classics, in translations? Isn't Gilbert Murray as good as Euripides? To that I say, Murray is good, but at best he can only give you a taste for the real thing. For every translator is between two horns of a dilemma. He must either make a literal translation, which cannot convey the beauty or feeling of the original, and which is not good English; or, like Murray, he translates Greek poetry into English poetry, and if he does his task well, gives you a noble English literature on a classical subject. Again and again Murray has to twist, even torture the meaning of the Greek in order to make it fit English metre, or to give the English-speaking reader the same feeling or sensation that Murray thinks the original conveyed to an Athenian of 400 B.C. The results are sometimes fantastic. No, there is but one really great, one really

classical translation in the English language: the King James version of the Bible—and even that is not invariably faithful to the original.

"A translation is like the wrong side of a piece of tapestry," said Robert Louis Stevenson, repeating James Howell; and Shelley tells us that "Translation is vanity; it were as wise to cast a violet into a crucible that you might discover the formal principle of its color and odor, as seek to transpose from one language into another the creations of a poet. The plant must spring again from its seed—and this is the burthen of the curse of Babel." What a good time Mark Twain had with his funny literal re-translations of French and German translations of his own works! Even allowing for his humorous exaggerations of differences in idiom, his grotesqueries drive home the essential point: *It isn't the same thing when it's translated.*

No. Abstracts will not do. Literary translations can never really reproduce the original. Even if they were reasonably satisfactory, translations of "practically all the good things" simply are *not* available, as Werner F. Leopold of Northwestern University points out in an article in the *Monatshefte für Deutschen Unterricht* (December, 1936):

> Nor should we be afraid of the objection: "Why study a language?—Everything valuable is accessible in translation." Anybody who has studied the question of translations knows how much is lost by the transfer to another medium of thinking, even if the translation is good, as many are not. He also knows that waiting for a translation means inevitable delays; that only a minimal amount of material is ever translated; and—worst of all—that the selection of books for translation is never based on their intrinsic value, but on their sales appeal, which certainly does not amount to the same thing. To give some specific examples: there is very little chance that works of Hans Grimm, of Hermann Stehr, of Friedrich Blunck, or of Kolbenheyer will ever be translated into English because their atmosphere is so "foreign" that they would not be a success with the American reading public, and carry no promise of profit for the publisher.
>
> But it is just this foreign attitude which has educational value. The average reader, however, the one who makes a book a sales success, does not want education, but entertainment. We cannot blame the publishers so much for their principle of selection; they are primarily not agents of culture, but business men. But we can blame the school, if it does not teach high-school students, aspirants for culture, a foreign language.

Mr. Leopold raises an important point. Some of the best things published abroad simply do not lend themselves to translation. They are, as he says, too "foreign." Conversely, Mark Twain and some other American writers are too "American" for effective translation into any foreign language. Twain is, in part at least, practically untranslatable. Yet foreigners should know him, or others just as "American" as he, if they are really to understand our America.

More than a hundred years ago George Ticknor, one of the first American scholars in the humanities, wrote:

> Consider, too, who these leading authors are; to what class they belong; and what constitute their characteristic claims, attractions and value. They are precisely the authors in whom the peculiar genius of their respective languages stands forth in the boldest relief;—those in whom the distinctive features of the national temper and character are most prominent;—those, in short, who come to us fresh from the feelings and attributes of the mass of the people they represent, and full of the peculiarities of thought, idiom, and expression which separate that people from all others, and constitute them a distinct portion of mankind. That such authors cannot be understood without some knowledge of the popular feeling and colloquial idiom with which their minds have been nourished and of which their works are full, hardly needs to be urged or made more apparent. Take the case of the great Masters in our own English. Can any one who is entirely ignorant of the phraseology, inflexions, and shadings of our spoken language comprehend the picturesque but homely directness of Chaucer, or the exquisite delicacy of Spenser, or the unapproached power of nature in Shakespeare? Nay, can such a one know in what is hidden the idiomatic simplicity of Addison or Cowper; or can he even read his own contemporaries, Miss Edgeworth or Sir Walter Scott? Nor is it in any respect different in the other living languages, which have succeeded in vindicating for their authors a place among the classical literature of the world. The great masters, in all ages and in all nations, have built on the same foundations and can be successfully approached only in one way. For who can pretend to understand or estimate the untold riches of the older drama of Spain or of its early romantic and popular ballads, or who will venture to open Don Quixote, who knows nothing of the peculiarities of the Spanish as a spoken tongue? Or who can draw near to Goethe and Schiller and Tieck in the spirit in which their power is revealed, unless he feels in some degree that he is holding intercourse with contemporaries who speak to him, as it were, with living voices? Or who can comprehend the quaint simplicity of La Fontaine, or the rich humor and genuine comic power of Molière, if he has never turned his thoughts towards that conversational idiom to which each resorted for whatever is peculiar both in his beauty and his power. Or, finally,—to take instances which are the more striking because they seem at first the least susceptible of such application—who can be aware either of the sublimity or the tenderness of Dante, unless he studies that unwritten language from which alone this first and greatest master of Italian poetry could draw his materials or his inspiration?

James Russell Lowell writes:

> I will not say with the Emperor Charles V that a man is as many men as he knows languages, and still less with Lord Burleigh that such polyglottism is but "to have one meat served in divers dishes." But I think that to know the literature of another language, whether dead or living matters not, gives us the prime benefits of foreign travel. It relieves us from what Richard Lassels aptly calls a "moral excommunication"; it greatly widens the mind's range of view, and therefore of comparison, thus strengthening the judicial faculty; and it teaches us to consider the relations of things to each other and to some general scheme rather than to ourselves; above all, it enlarges aesthetic charity. It has seemed to me also that a foreign language has the advantage of putting whatever is written in it at just such a distance as is needed for a proper mental perspective.

"I canna read Greek," said the Ettrick Shepherd in Christopher North's *Noctes Ambrosianae,* "except in a Latin translation done into English." Some of us must be Ettrick Shepherds; many of us must labor under the "moral excommunication" of which Lowell speaks. But let us have an end of efforts to argue away that moral excommunication, either by asserting that it doesn't exist, or by claiming that the remedy for ignorance of foreign languages and literatures lies in the "fact" that there is "something just as good." There isn't.

Let no one misunderstand me, however, as condemning translations *per se.* Translations are useful. Translations have their place. To read a foreign work in English translation is far better than never to read it at all. But translations never have been and by their very nature never can be an effective substitute, or even a thoroughly reliable partial substitute, for first-hand acquaintaince with foreign languages and literatures.

## NOTES

1. "Meaning has outrun articulation. As Robert Louis Stevenson said to his friend after a night's argument, 'Do you understand me?' and then added, 'God knows! I should think it highly improbable.' Stevenson and his friend were speaking face to face, utilizing all the channels of understanding. Meaning became three-dimensional; the bare words were given depth by a shrug of the shoulders, a smile, a gesture, and articulation was dramatized, clothed with meaning. Yet communication between these comparative masters of language had reached an impasse.

"If, therefore, we have no assurance that words uttered by one person will reproduce more than a bare approximation of the same meaning in his hearer's mind, how much more difficult for groups or nations to understand one another! Wars are made, great crises brought on in business and foreign affairs, because of confusion in meaning."

Harold Rugg, in *Culture and Education in America,* p. 245.

2. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

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# WHY SPANISH?

## *A Catechism for Teachers*

[Issued by The Committee on Public Relations of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, Dr. Hymen Alpern, Chairman.]

## PREFACE

This compilation of questions and answers is intended as an aid for those teachers of Spanish who are interested in the subject and in the child, but who, because they may not consider themselves skilled in the art of disputation or in the phraseology, feel the need of reinforcements.

The questions are those which have been frequently raised by educationalists and other critics in arguing against Spanish. The answers have been prepared by authorities both in and out of the profession, since some of them can be answered more authoritatively by the former and others by the latter. It is hoped that those who are genuinely devoted to the Hispanic cause will thus have ready access to the best available answers.

Neither all possible questions nor all possible answers relevant to the teaching of Spanish have been exhausted in this brief catechism. However, an ample indication has been given of what our professional task must be in these times if we are to justify our calling. It is to be hoped that it will supply a needed orientation for all our colleagues who are concerned with the future of our profession and its contribution to solving on a national scale the problems we face.

We have all been hearing and reading a great deal recently about the "changing world" in which we are living and the need for adjusting all we have inherited from the past to the "new order" of things that is said to be coming into existence. While it is perhaps true that the most definite thing we are told about this "changing world" is that it is changing, and while really specific orientations are still somewhat vague in this period of ebb and flux, it is not amiss to give heed to the new voices, which seem to call for emphasis on the social, political and economic outlook of our world.

With reference to the teaching of Spanish we can perceive a "new trend" in the answers given herein by non-teachers. They all emphasize in one voice the inter-American value of our subject. They point precisely to its social, political and economic significance in cementing better and closer inter-American relations and to the part it can play in keeping our hemisphere free from international strife that is continually disrupting distraught Europe.

These values that the non-teachers point out represent the deepest international interests of our country. It is not only wise for us as teachers of Spanish to make of ourselves and our profession an indispensable arm of the nation in achieving these ends, but it is our patent duty as citizens and educators of the United States to serve the cause of Greater America. The world today is socially and economically minded. Spanish as one of two commonest languages of the American World is in a privileged position in comparison with other foreign languages taught in our schools. Besides its undeniable value as an instrument of culture, it has unbounded possibilities as a social and economic force in Greater America. We who have been trained to direct this force ought not to be found wanting.

To future generations the symbol of our own times will probably be an immense interrogation mark. What human values and institutions have not been questioned in our days? From the contemporary thoroughgoing and skeptical scrutiny of all established things, education has naturally not been exempt. It, too, has been weighed in the balance of revaluation and claimed to be found wanting. And side by side with the phases of this traditional activity commonly adjudged—by its critics—amongst the weakest is included our own work, the teaching of Spanish.

It will not do to disregard the attack, or to belittle it with prettily worded references to the broadening, cultural value of our subject. At the present stage of its affairs the world is not in the mood to listen with any measure of patience and consideration to a perfunctory defense. There is much greater wisdom in confessing our vulnerability as merely an old discipline, and then setting out most energetically in search for a true justification of the position of foreign languages in the curriculum as tools for the new order of things to come.

This "Why Spanish" catechism is an attempt in the direction just outlined. It expresses unrest on the part of the American teachers of Spanish, and a wholesome restlessness is most desirable for the soul of our profession. Our self-critique is evidenced in two ways: we not only ask questions about our work and answer them ourselves after some introspective searching, but also invite others, completely outside the school world, to give their answers to those queries which they are in a better position to handle.

To those who ponder the variety of answers published here, it will be obvious that Spanish deserves a place in the curriculum, not only for the immediately profitable rewards (even for those who never get nearer Spanish America than their own birthplace), but for those ultimately pleasurable benefits it bestows on all who study it conscientiously.

For the Committee,
Hymen Alpern, *Chairman*

*Question:* WHAT EDUCATIONAL VALUES DOES SPANISH OFFER?

*Answer:* The secondary school program in Spanish yields the following educational values in proportion to time and attention given to the field:

1. *A more enlightened Americanism* through an appreciation of the Spanish origin of a significant part of our national culture.
2. *An effective substitute for travel* as a means for achieving de-

sirable interests, attitudes, and appreciation in the field of Spanish and Spanish-American cultures.

3. *Increased capacity for appreciation* of Spanish and Spanish-American cultures as embodied in the immediate environment.
4. *Increased social and occupational literacy* in proportion to the time and effort devoted to the mastery of Spanish either as a means of communication or as a key to literature.
5. A background in worthy attitudes, interests and predispositions for the motivation of *socially desirable habits of thought and action in human relations.*
6. *Opportunities for integration* with other fields of the curriculum and with community life.

Spanish rather than English is preferred as the medium for the attaining of these values because of its appeal to pupil interest, because of its emotional bearing upon the appreciations, and because of its utility *per se* as a means of communication even on relatively rudimentary levels of mastery.

*Question:* WHAT IS THE PRACTICAL VALUE OF STUDYING SPANISH?

*Answer:* Excluding Haiti, Brazil and the few small British, French and Dutch colonies, Spanish is the language of all of the Western World south of the United States. A new era of closer relations, political, cultural and commercial, is dawning over the Americas, whose destinies point more and more to inter-American unity. Those young men and women of our country who are properly prepared in Spanish will be ready to find their place in the inter-Americanism of the coming generation. Spanish is not only a language of great cultural significance, but of all of the modern languages, it is perhaps the one most readily convertible, commercially and professionally, into material advantages of distinct value.

*Question:* WHAT IS THE CIVIC VALUE OF SPANISH?

*Answers:* The chief aim of education has always been and is to overcome narrow-mindedness, selfishness, and intolerance by extending the radius of one's horizon and broadening his vision, thus making him more tolerant, more cosmopolitan, a better citizen of his community, his state, his nation, and the world. No other subject is quite so well suited to the development of a spirit of world citizenship as foreign languages and literatures. To speak another people's language creates a strong feeling of brotherhood with them. Circumstances have so closely linked the destinies of the peoples of the

**western hemisphere that we must learn to speak each other's language, or we shall lose our birthright.**

**The teaching of Spanish in the public schools of the United States has reached the dignity and importance of an international service. In reality the study of Spanish is essential to the further development of true Pan Americanism. Without it, we cannot hope to proceed very far in that path of mutual understanding between the nations of America which is so essential to the peace and prosperity of this Continent.**

**Human contacts by land and sea and air are continually multiplying. They link all nations, almost all peoples. Contacts increase the need of understanding among men; language is the best known medium. Spanish is spoken by 100,000,000 people, most of whom live in the Americas. Inter-American cooperation is showing the world the way to pacific achievement; and this status forms a powerful and everlasting link in the family of Western World Nations. *Don't try to make signs* in growing up with this great family—be able to converse with your neighbors.**

*Question:* WHAT IS THE SOCIAL VALUE OF SPANISH?

*Answers:* **The influence at one time wielded by the church in the interest of international amity and goodwill now reaches only a relatively small number of our youth. It is therefore incumbent upon the school to exercise an effective compensatory influence. Our national ideal of becoming "a good neighbor" to the other Americas can only be realized through the development among our citizenry of understandings and appreciations of Spanish-speaking peoples. Such understandings and appreciations become the more urgent the stronger the chauvinistic tendencies expressed by our press and social minority groups. That offerings in Spanish language and culture afford an effective means for the development of a broader social vision and perspective becomes evident when it is realized that Spanish is the language of eighteen republics of the Western Hemisphere, and of so large a number of people within our own borders that in at least one state the ballot is printed in both Spanish and English. Neither world culture nor American culture can be appreciated without an acquaintance with Spanish civilization.**

**The social value of the study of Spanish to North American students is immense and beyond question.**

**Literature in Spanish incorporates a vast range of experiences and constructive ideas for the improvement of society, expressed by writers in nineteen nations of Spanish speech, nations in which social**

problems of great variation and complexity have arisen and have been, at least partially, solved.

Knowledge of the Spanish language opens wide the doors of approach to thousands of citizens of the United States and to millions of fellow-Americans resident in countries outside our borders, whose maternal tongue is Spanish.

The Spanish language, as an instrumentality of youth education, presents materials and content that may most successfully be used to develop in a practical way high ideals of social attitudes, responsibilities, growth and cooperation.

*Question:* HOW DOES SPANISH CONTRIBUTE TO CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT?

*Answers:* The study of language awakens interest in the civilization of the country which it represents. Her art, architecture, literature, music, sculpture and history become interesting fields of research. When these discipline and refine the student's intellectual and moral nature, they become a factor in his cultural development. Spanish, through an aroused interest in Spain and Spanish America, introduces the student to a new civilization, Greco-Iberian, Roman, Visigothic and Moorish. Through his readings he learns to appreciate the art of a Velázquez, and El Greco and a Murillo, the mysticism of Theresa of Ávila and John of the Cross, the eloquence of a Dominic, the drama of Lope de Vega, Calderón and Tirso de Molina, the novel of Cervantes, the laws of Alfonso the Wise, the historical endeavors of Columbus, and the research of Mariana and Bartolomé de las Casas. Knowledge of this type contributes to any person's cultural development and introduces him to an assemblage of the social aesthetic qualities which constitute individual culture.

To those living on the Pacific Coast the cultural importance of Spanish is very obvious. So many place-names in the Western states, so many customs, so many words of Spanish origin are around that our own English speech is modified by them.

Many advocate the teaching of Spanish on the ground of our trade relationships with the Spanish-speaking people of the Western hemisphere. This is a good reason so far as it goes, but it "puts the cart before the horse." Our trade connections with these countries are likely to improve if we put our cultural relationship first and pay proper respect to that old-world courtesy and ceremony, the absence of which so often handicaps us in our dealings. If the Latin races on the American continent could feel that in the North a due regard is felt for the Spanish contributions to New World civilization, closer commercial relationships would quickly follow. The first step toward this is to encourage the study of the Spanish language, and so to appreciate better its cultural implications.

The contributions of Spain and Spanish America in the various fields of cultural development are, or should be, self-evident. In philosophy the names of the Spanish Roman, Marcus Aurelius, of Luis Vives, and of Unamuno are universally known. In history the life and works of the Romans from Hispania, Trajan, Hadrian, Theodosius, such names as Columbus, Balboa, De Soto, Pizarro, Cortés, and Coronado all attest to the importance of Spanish. In the field of literature shine forth the life and works of Alfonso X (El Sabio), Cervantes, Lope de Vega, Galdós, and Rubén Darío. Spanish literature has given to the world five universally known characters in La Celestina, Lazarillo, Don Quijote, Sancho Panza, and Don Juan. The works of Granados, De Falla, and Iturbi in music, of El Greco, Velázquez, Murillo, and Zurbarán in painting, testify to the importance of Spanish in the fine arts. The official language of eighteen of the twenty-one republics of the Western Hemisphere is Spanish, while even in the United States, Spanish is spoken over most of the Southwest. A better understanding between the various peoples of the Americas is of major importance in any cultural development. Thus the importance of the language and literature of Spain and Spanish America in this field can hardly be exaggerated. All of the foregoing names and facts stand as an irrefutable argument in favor of the teaching and study of Spanish as a means towards cultural development.

*Question:* HOW CAN SPANISH CONTRIBUTE TO THE INTELLIGENT AND PROFITABLE USE OF LEISURE TIME ACTIVITIES?

*Answer:* More and more programs appear on the radio featuring Spanish and Latin-American music, using Spanish phrases. The dances that have most appeal are those based on Spanish rhythms. The dancers that call out the largest audiences are Spanish dancers. Every dancing teacher specializes in the folk dance of Spain. The first fancy-dress costume thought of is either American colonial or Spanish. Of foreign folk-song the Spanish is the most frequently demanded, whether sung in the original tongue or in translation.

These activities are all of them adapted to the profitable use of leisure time; therefore a knowledge of Spanish increases enjoyment of music, of art and of travel not only in the Spanish-speaking countries of the South but in those parts of the United States which have a still vivid Spanish heritage.

It stimulates, through familiarity with the idiom, an appreciation of the contribution made by other nations to the civilization of our country. Such increased understanding and stimulation to independent thought will make for more resourcefulness in shaping and greater enrichment in using the hours of leisure time.

### *Question:* OF WHAT IMPORTANCE IS SPANISH TO A SCIENTIST?

*Answer:* To a scientist interested in the American field, Spanish is probably the most important language for consultation purposes. This is because the earliest accounts of places and peoples for a large part of America are to be found in Spanish histories and Spanish documents. We refer especially to writings which touch the early civilizations of the New World with which the Spaniards were in much more intimate contact than any other people. Oviedo, Gomara and Herrera are, in our opinion, almost top-notch historians. Perhaps never before in the history of mankind was such a tremendous mass of material reduced into such fine classifications. Gomara and Herrera wrote works which are of high artistic as well as factual merit. Oviedo, while just as important, is of course too garrulous. Aside from that, the people of Spain have constantly put into their literary productions material on current life which oftentimes has the merit of an ethnological treatise.

Furthermore, Spanish is the language of our neighbors and we are inclined to believe that more and more the nations of the New World will tend to cooperate in cultural as well as business matters.

For exploration purposes to mining engineers, botanical collectors and physical geographers, Spanish is not only useful but almost necessary.

For the American archaeologist, Spanish is indispensable. The University of New Mexico *demands* of those taking part in excavation a speaking and reading knowledge of Spanish.

Physiologists need Spanish to study investigations by Francisco de la Reina antedating by fifty years Harvey's work on blood circulation. Physicists, mathematicians, sociologists, artists, musicians, all will find inspirational reading if they know Spanish. *Time* (April 3, 1933) published a column list of eminent scientists to whom Spanish is the native language and whose experiments are reported in that language.

*Question:* OF WHAT IMPORTANCE IS SPANISH TO AN ENGINEER?

*Answers:* The greatest importance of Spanish to an engineer is that it doubles his field of possible endeavor.

The importance of Central and South America as a field for the engineer is increasing rapidly, and particularly since the beginning of the exploitation of petroleum in those countries. Like the geologist, the engineer in South America finds it necessary to be among the people—at times he must be completely away from English-speaking persons. His value as an engineer, therefore, other things being equal, varies directly with his ability to speak Spanish. In fine, Spanish opens for the engineer an additional field of service, offers him adventure, and greatly increases his opportunity to obtain gainful employment.

One of the important fields of future development in which American engineers may be employed is that of Latin America from the Río Grande to Argentina and Chile. The United States has closer relations with these countries than with those of the Old World, and in almost all of them Spanish is the language spoken.

These countries need railways, highways, works of sanitation, power developments, mineral and oil production, etc. Engineers who may be employed in any of these enterprises are handicapped without a knowledge of the language of the country and the people with whom they have to work.

In aviation, with the development of Pan American Airways and the Clippers, Spanish steps prominently into importance.

True engineering requires a knowledge of economics and business conditions in the territory in which the technical knowledge is being applied, and a full appreciation and understanding of these is impossible without a knowledge of the language.

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*Question:* OF WHAT IMPORTANCE IS SPANISH TO THE BUSINESS MAN?

*Answers:* American business must look more and more to the South. Disturbed political and economic conditions in the Old World with the spirit of nationalism growing there menacingly, and with the intensification of industrial processes through the adoption of the American mass production methods, are bending the trade lanes from an east-west to a north-south direction.

Europe does not need and will not take the output of our factories as freely as she has done in the past. Likewise our shipments of agricultural products to that section of the world are diminishing steadily due to increasing home consumption and other causes. Central and South America increasingly need our machinery and other producer-goods equipment. We in turn must have their raw products. The language of the vast area designated Latin America is principally Spanish.

From the foregoing it must be apparent that American business needs this tongue more than any other foreign speech.

Spanish is becoming more important to the business man because the development of our country is making it more and more dependent upon international trade for carrying on its activities at near capacity, and the Latin-American countries are, beyond a doubt, most promising markets for American goods. Trade between the United States and Latin America will increase, and Spanish will be used extensively in all of the business transactions.

The business man knowing Spanish, therefore, will be admirably equipped to carry on business activity.

Our frontiers where young people can find an outlet for their energy, enterprise and ambitions have disappeared, but in the development of Mexico, Cuba and Central America and South American countries, enterprising young people will find many opportunities.

It would be difficult for anyone to leave high school and get any kind of position simply because of a knowledge of Spanish. But careers in which Spanish will later prove to be of great value are probably much more common than those in which French or German would prove to be of similar value. Relations between the United States and countries of Spanish America are becoming more and more important all the time. Our future and the future of Spanish America are closely bound together. Many thousands of our citizens today are earning their living in Spanish America and many thousands of Spanish-Americans today are earning their living in the United States. Interchange works both ways.

Latin America is, and no doubt will continue to be, a great field for American business and development. In this field there are today successfully operating a large number of important American corporations having in those countries an investment of several hundred millions of dollars. Among these concerns are those engaged in mining, petroleum, sugar, and fruit production, railways, public utilities, textile manufactures, commercial aviation, banking, importing and exporting, and engineering and construction. As is at once apparent, these far-flung activities cover an extremely wide range of human endeavor. Thousands of Americans ranking from clerks and junior engineers to managers are engaged by these companies for service in Latin America. In each and every case a good working knowledge of the Spanish language is a real asset and, conversely, its lack is a liability and no small inconvenience. This statement applies to both social and business life.

In some foreign businesses we have observed a tendency over a number of years for Latin-American markets to become permanent fields of foreign interest as regards ordinary commercial transactions, and probably this is somewhat typical of the foreign trade of the country at large. The majority of the people who will go abroad in our service in the future thus will go to countries where Spanish is the current language or else, as in the case of Brazil, that first cousin of Spanish, the Portuguese language.

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*Question:* HOW WOULD YOU SUMMARIZE THE REASONS WHY SPANISH SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN THE UNITED STATES?

*Answer:* Spanish should by all means be taught in the public high schools of the United States, since a general knowledge of Spanish in this country will serve to make us acquainted with Spanish and Spanish-American literature, to bring about a better understanding between our people and the Spanish-Americans, and to foster trade with the Spanish-American countries.

Anyone who has a thorough knowledge of Spanish will grant that it is the key to one of the most important literatures in the world, that it has a great, abundant, and vigorous literature, an interesting literature that has been too much neglected in the United States, one that is particularly interesting to the American public as is evident from the great vogue which the contemporary Spanish novel and drama are now having in this country.

A knowledge of Spanish will help to remove the provincial atmosphere of much of the American mind, for through the study of a foreign language comes sympathy with those that speak it. There can be no doubt that the future welfare of the New World is largely dependent on a greater mutual understanding on the part of the Anglo-American nations and the Hispano-American republics. The knowledge of Spanish will create bonds of sympathy and enlightened interest where they are perhaps most needed. A closer understanding of our neighbors in the Western Hemisphere will help us to avoid petty misunderstandings, commercial jealousy and social quarrels. Inasmuch as in our relations with the Spanish-American republics nature has made us neighbors and language has made us strangers, the international importance of Spanish for North Americans cannot be exaggerated. If the American people wish to satisfy the demands created by our geographical, political, economic and social situation in the New World, Spanish must be put alongside of English as the additional and alternate language of every-day life.

There is a general recognition of the utilitarian value of Spanish for those who are in any way connected with Spanish-American trade, and both our business men and our educators are willing to grant that in this country the monetary value of Spanish will be greater than that of any other foreign language, that as a practical subject for North Americans it ranks higher than any other foreign language, but Spanish has a further advantage in that it is both a cultural and a vocational subject, since it maintains a cultural value while open to a practical application.

And yet, paradoxical as it may seem, Spanish is held rather lightly by certain serious-minded persons who, of course, know nothing about it themselves and are rather proud of the fact, but those who speak against Spanish are either ignorant of what the Spanish-speaking people have accomplished or they oppose it through some personal reason.

Not only is a knowledge of Spanish of great utility to North Americans, but the language itself is a thing of beauty: rich, sonorous, majestic and fluent, it appeals with equal attraction to ear and mind. No less an authority than J. Storm has said that the intonation of Spanish is the most grave, dignified, martial and manly among the Romance languages. Another authoritative statement is to the effect that Spanish is, perhaps, the most sonorous, harmonious, elegant and expressive of the Neo-Latin languages. And a more recent writer says that Spanish has certain happy characteristics that give it energy, sweetness and sonorousness.

The two chief languages of the New World are and will always be English and Spanish. There is no denying the fact that the Spanish language occupies in this continent a place of importance second only to that of English, for it is the language of millions of our fellow Americans. In truth, it is almost as widely spoken in the western hemisphere as English itself. This can be said of no other foreign tongue. In view of these facts, it must be granted that the teaching of Spanish in the United States has reached the dignity and importance of an international service. To further the study of Spanish in our high schools is therefore a patriotic action, and we must take particular care to see that the study of Spanish, if not made compulsory, is at least made possible in all our secondary schools.

## ENDURING VALUE IN THE STUDY OF FRENCH

### HELENE HARVITT AND STEPHEN A. FREEMAN

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* * * * *

*A small world.* Although the war has caused a temporary interruption of communications between this country and France, it has also made us realize how close we are to Europe. Distances count but little today: London and Paris are only twenty hours away by Clipper. When peace returns, our relations with France will be resumed and a knowledge of its language will be more necessary than ever. As the United States moves toward ever more intimate contacts with the rest of the world in all phases of human activity, the study of languages must be increased rather than curtailed, if we are to understand our neighbors and make them understand us.

*French in our daily life.* Even now, French is constantly before us and forms an unavoidable part of our daily life. The English language itself includes a very large proportion of French words, or Latin words which came to us through the French. In order to understand and appreciate our own language fully we must know something about its sources and growth. The newspapers and books that we read are full of French words and expressions, or words recently borrowed from the French, like garage, menu, camouflage, communiqué, etc. Our radio announcers and commentators use French terms. Short wave radio brings us programs and speeches in French from Europe and Canada. French moving pictures rank high among our amusements; in New York, as many as six French films are sometimes being shown at the same time; and the English subtitles only make us want to understand French better. Our art, our music, our social habits and our high standards of living bring constant reminders of France.

*Scientific value.* French scientists have been among the most important contributors to modern progress. We owe to French inventors the neon light, liquid air, color photography. French science has shown us how to make milk safe, how to vaccinate against disease, how to harness our water power. France brought the discoveries of the Wright brothers to practical use, and French aviators were the pioneers in commercial aviation all over the world. A knowledge of the French language is therefore necessary for scientists and advanced students in many fields—physics, medicine, electricity. French is a preferred subject among college entrance requirements; and almost all graduate schools of technology, scientific institutes or medical schools require a reading knowledge of French.

*Vocational value.* Even the pupils in our schools who do not expect to do graduate research should be aware of the many practical advantages which lie in a knowledge of French. There are still many occupations in which a knowledge of French is absolutely essential. The government employs large numbers of translators, interpreters, and clerks in the foreign service departments. Many civil service examinations require French among other foreign languages. French is required in certain groups of the aviation corps or the F.B.I. Private business employs thousands of people partly because of their knowledge of one or more foreign languages. Such opportunities appear not only in international banking or international trade, but also in publishing houses, broadcasting companies, social service organizations, journalism, in public libraries or the research libraries of industrial corporations, in secretarial work for international executives, diplomats, and men of letters. Specialized courses in preparation for such varied employment are impossible, and unnecessary. The technical vocabulary of each position is quite distinct, and can be learned in a few weeks' experience. Those interested should generally know more than one language, both to speak and to write it, and should have a good knowledge of shorthand and typewriting.

* * * * *

*France and the United States.* For more than one hundred and fifty years the bonds of friendship between the French and American people have been unshaken. The French under men like Lafayette, Rochambeau and de Grasse aided us to secure our national independence. Maryland conferred American citizenship on Lafayette, and the Assemblée Nationale conferred French citizenship on Washington, Madison and Hamilton. Our American constitution is largely influenced, through Jefferson, by the ideas of Montesquieu. Frenchmen explored our Mississippi valley and our Great Lakes; a Frenchman drew the plans for our national capital. We went to the aid of France in 1917, and France remembers with gratitude the help which America sent for her reconstruction after the war. The two countries are still linked by the ties of history, mutual interest, and close friendship; one does not turn his back on a friend in distress.

*Cultural value.* French has been the basic modern foreign language in our curriculum since the Academies of Colonial times to the present. It has made no difference whether France had a Louis XVI or a Napoleon or a president. The greatest increase in the study of French began in this country just after France's overwhelming defeat by Germany in 1870. All this time, French has been studied entirely without reference to her political strength or weakness. No political influence, no propaganda has hidden behind it. The clear and undisputed fact is that French is above all a *cultural* study in our curriculum.

The cultural values in the study of French are clear, definite, and proven. They may be summed up as follows:

1. An enriched appreciation of the English language, and greater power of expression in English, through the study of sentence structure, the sources and distinctions in words, and through the discipline of rethinking ideas in another medium.

2. An increased tolerance and understanding of one's fellow-men, through a study of a foreign people that thinks different thoughts, lives a different life in a very different way, and yet is worthy of respect and even admiration.

3. An enriched human experience, through reading the great literature of France. More than in any other literature, French masterpieces have taken man for their subject, have studied his hopes and fears, his joys and sorrows, his ideals, his inner struggles, and his relations with his fellow-men. A deepened understanding of man and the life that he lives apart from the physical world, is one of the great contributions of language study.

Our American democracy depends for its strength on strong individuals, capable of thinking clearly and making decisions on the basis of facts logically assembled and weighed. Training in individual thinking, mental discipline, the refinement of understanding and expression—these are among the most important although unmeasurable values of our American education. The study of French is not the only instrument for acquiring them, but it can make a definite and unique contribution. Teachers, pupils and parents must see to it that the study of French continues to do its share in the training of young Americans.

## SOME REASONS FOR STUDYING GERMAN

**[From *GQ*, XV, 4, Nov. 1942, 179–180. Prepared by the Metropolitan Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of German.]**

*A knowledge of German:*

1. is of special importance in a scientific, political, and military way at a time when we are at war with Nazi Germany. We need it to defeat our enemy. This is recognized in the stress now being put on the study of German at West Point. Some specific war jobs involving German are: translator, interpreter, radio monitor, secretarial and other positions in the Intelligence Service, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, and the State Department.
2. will be of great importance in the solving of the problems of world peace and reconstruction after the war. There will be a need for people with a knowledge of German in such fields as Advertising, Banking, Book-selling, Detective Work, Diplomacy, Engineering, Foreign Trade, Hotel Service, International Law, International Relations, Journalism, Radio, Secretarial Work, Social Service Work, Teaching, American Foreign Service, Foreign Government Service, Librarianship, Special Personnel Work, Interpreting, and Translation. In many of these fields German is absolutely essential.
3. will unlock for you the rich treasures of German literature in the works of such writers as Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, Heine, Hauptmann, Schnitzler, and Mann. This is important for a rich cultural life and for such jobs as teaching English, History, Philosophy, and foreign languages.
4. will increase your understanding and enjoyment of one of Germany's great contributions to civilization, German music, as exemplified in the songs of Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Brahms and Wolf, the rich store of German folk-songs, and the great operas of Wagner. Most singers and many musicians, composers, musicologists, and music teachers find a knowledge of German necessary.
5. is necessary for an understanding of German political and economic history, past and present. Ask the statesman, the historian, the economist.
6. is a highly important tool for ALL students in theoretical and applied sciences. Many colleges require it for majors in chemistry; most colleges either recommend or require it for students of biology, chemistry, mathematics, medicine, and physics.

7. is recommended for students planning to do advanced work in virtually every field. Many universities require it for the M.A. or M.S. Almost all universities require it for the Ph.D.

## THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE

### *For Prospective Students in Engineering, Science and Architecture*

[Prepared jointly by the Admissions Office and the Department of Modern Languages of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Reprinted by permission.]

This statement has been prepared in order to deal with the question so frequently asked of the Admissions Office by prospective students: "What languages shall I study in secondary school?"

The Institute does not require proficiency in any foreign language as a prerequisite for admission, nor is the extent of an applicant's study in the language field taken into account in selecting candidates for admission. Such selection is based more broadly on the candidate's potential promise as student, professional graduate, and citizen, taking into account both academic achievement and personal qualifications. This does not mean, however, that language study is not advocated, or that it should be neglected. Rather, it is urged that early attention be given to such study, and a choice of foreign languages be made in the light of the considerations pointed out in what follows.

### *Language and Technical Education*

The study of a foreign language is desirable first of all as part of a general education. To this end language study, even though carried little beyond the stage of a reading knowledge, can contribute in two different ways.

The study of language contributes to general education in making the student more articulate, and training him in expression. Composition and translation direct attention to the meaning of words and phrases, to grammar and sentence structure, and to idiomatic phrasing, not only in the language under study but in the mother tongue as well. New idioms represent not merely new forms of expression, but different ways of thinking about things. Expression gains in grace and precision, and thinking, which is closely related to expression, may become as a result more logical and exact.

The study of a foreign language, ancient or modern, in addition, broadens the student's cultural and intellectual horizon. It brings some knowledge of the history and civilization of the peoples who use or have used it. Thus the study of Latin or Greek, quite apart from its philological uses, sheds light on the civilization and history of the ancient world in which our own is deeply rooted. So also the study of French brings some acquaintance with the rise of democratic thought and experimental science which have had such an important place in shaping the America we know today.

In addition to its value for the enrichment of mind and culture, the study of language has practical uses. It furthers commercial, scientific, and social intercourse with foreign countries. Facility in colloquial speech is likely to be of particular value in this kind of use. The United States is destined henceforth to have much closer contacts with the world at large than ever before. It follows that leaders in every field, including science, engineering and architecture, will increasingly need to be conversant with foreign conditions and foreign tongues. From this standpoint, then, foreign language can be regarded as a necessary part of the training of those who aspire to responsible leadership in these fields. Engineers and scientists are likely to have increasing need for the kind of oral language proficiency hitherto required by international merchants, bankers, and government officials.

Another practical reason for language study concerns the specialized purposes of research. It is true that many practicing engineers in this country have little or no professional need of a foreign language. Such men are concerned with construction, industrial production, management, accounting or marketing as these activities relate to technology. On the other hand, those whose work involves research or design problems of a fundamental nature need to be in current touch with developments in other countries. Many scientific and technical reports, periodicals, abstracts and other documents, including patents, are not available in translation. It follows that at least a reading knowledge of several foreign languages is important for the research scientist. This need is the greater in proportion as his work involves basic research or new development and less to the extent that he is concerned chiefly with applications and with industrial or commercial operations.

### *When to Study Language*

The study of foreign languages should, in general, commence as early in life as possible. There is no substitute for the instinctive ease of colloquial speech which comes from early association with a spoken language. For those who lack this opportunity, the next best expedient is the study of language in high or secondary school. Here, again, it is well to start as early as possible; for the crowded curriculum of college leaves little time for elementary language study. Languages like Russian, however, which are not at present widely offered at the lower school levels, can be profitably studied in college, where at least a reading knowledge sufficient for use in specialized fields can be gained in the short time available.

One or two terms of language study are scheduled in all the Institute's science curricula, and in chemical engineering. These language requirements, as well as those for the Master's and Doctor's degrees, are given in the Catalogue.

### *The Choice of Language*

In the light of the above considerations it can be seen that there is no quick and easy answer to the question: "What language shall I study?" The answer must take account of the student's tastes and interests, of the educational opportunities available to him and of his probable future field of work. However, a brief discussion of the languages which are likely to be most important to a future scientist may be helpful.

#### GERMAN

The prejudice against the study of German which stems from World War I has resulted in severe curtailment of opportunity to study this language in high schools. This is unfortunate from the point of view of scientific students because there is in German a vast scientific literature to which access is important for the research scientist. Many scientific reports from the countries of Central Europe and Scandinavia are published in German. The language has therefore a significance which goes beyond the scientific contributions of Germany itself. Even considering Germany alone, there is in existence a very large "back-log" of technical literature, particularly in chemistry, physics, engineering and biology. This will long continue to be of importance regardless of any postwar changes which may take place in the position of German science and technology.

#### RUSSIAN

The position of Russia as the dominant power in Europe indicates that this language will increase in general currency, as well as in scientific use. Some believe it may assume such great importance that it will become the second language for Americans. French has long been regarded as second only to German as a scientific language (other than English), but in many fields, and particularly in Chemistry, Russian is now definitely of greater importance than French, if considered in terms of relative volume of new contributions to research.

### FRENCH

Despite the relative decline of French as a scientific language, it remains important as a language used by many nationalities. And there still exists in French, as in German, a considerable "back-log" of scientific literature stemming particularly from early French pre-eminence in military and civil engineering, from nineteenth century advances in biology, physics and chemistry and from pioneer aviation development in the early years of this century.

### OTHER LANGUAGES

Looking ahead to the probable future complexion of the world, it appears that Spanish, Portuguese and Chinese will assume much greater importance for Americans than they have now. They will be used primarily for commercial and cultural contacts as the scientific output of these countries is generally available in English. The Japanese, Scandinavian and other languages may be of interest to scientists in certain special fields.

## *Conclusion*

In the light of these considerations, the future engineer or scientist, planning his high school course, may well proceed as follows: If he has ties with a particular country, or if he plans definitely to take up work leading to such ties, then he should try to make an early start on the appropriate language. In the absence of any such guiding principle he should consider whether his inclinations will lead him into research or fundamental work in engineering design. If this is his goal he should study German, or Russian, or both—Russian particularly, if his interest is in chemistry. Since in many schools neither of these will be available, French would be the next choice. On the other hand, a student with no bent for, or interest in, language study *per se*, and with no intention of pursuing research on an advanced level may confidently allocate more of his time to English, history or to science, and less to foreign language without feeling that he is spoiling his chances for a career in engineering.

On the average, three years of language study in secondary school will be found to be the minimum which can be expected to assure reading knowledge persisting over the following few years. Since this is true, most students will study only one foreign language before college. If a second foreign language is undertaken, it should be only because a real need for it is likely to develop, or because the student finds language study congenial and wishes to extend his range. It should not be done merely because some one has told him he "ought" to study another language.

In sum, then, the choice of a foreign language is not one which can be made on the basis of generalized or arbitrary advice. It should rather depend on the student's best estimate of his own capabilities and interests and his probable future work, subject always to the educational opportunities open to him. At the same time, students are urged to select judiciously in the choice of languages in the light of changing world conditions. A great philosopher and critic once remarked that one should not own anything which he does not know to be useful or believe to be beautiful. On the same principle, it may be argued that the study of a language should be undertaken only if it fulfills a definite use, existing or probable, or if it brings satisfaction and enjoyment.

## VOCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS OF MODERN LANGUAGES

**Theodore Huebener**

*Director of Foreign Languages, Public Schools of the City of New York*

[From *School and College Placement,* 1944. By permission of the author.]

There have always been interesting and fairly remunerative positions available for young people with a good working knowledge of a foreign language. At the present time the opportunities for making vocational use of such an ability are unusually numerous. Business, and especially the Government, is urgently in need of competent persons who are well-trained in a modern language. In view of the dominant rôle which the United States will undoubtedly play in foreign affairs in the post-war world, the demand for graduates with linguistic equipment will undoubtedly be maintained. However, a few words of caution are in order.

A knowledge of a foreign language does not, in itself, particularly help in getting a job. (Otherwise, such positions would all go to recently-arrived aliens.) It must be accompanied by a good knowledge of the English language, and some other advanced training, skill, or experience, in order to be vocationally useful. This is especially true of Spanish, which, with the enthusiastic promotion of the Good Neighbor Policy, appears to have a very bright future. A knowledge of Spanish should be accompanied by some special skill, such as stenography, accounting, engineering, salesmanship, advertising, or Spanish shorthand. This statement is equally true of any of the other languages.

Furthermore, it is very difficult at this time to make definite promises about the future. After the last World War there was some expansion of our trade with Latin America, but not nearly so much as was expected. The same may be true after this war, however much we may think that improved relations due to the Good Neighbor Policy and various political and economic factors are favorable for a wider and more permanent expansion.

In the case of French, it is impossible to make any predictions about the future of France or of the French Colonial Empire. All one can say is that at the end of the war, a knowledge of French will be as great an asset as it ever was. In the gigantic work of reconstruction and in the expansion of foreign trade, this language will undoubtedly be extremely useful.

If Germany is occupied, a vast army of administrative officials with a thorough knowledge of German will be needed. Furthermore, it may be quite a while—as it was after World War I—before diplomatic relations with the Reich are resumed and in the interim the censorship of mail is likely to be maintained. Within the past month the Censorship Bureau and the OWI sent out several rush calls to the schools, having experienced a dearth of persons adequately trained in German.

With the concentration of attention on the Reich, it is generally overlooked that German is spoken by 68% of the Swiss, by the Austrians, the Alsatians and by considerable blocks of population in Russia, Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, and the Baltic States. Millions of Germans, possibly separated from the Reich by the peace treaty, will have to be dealt with in their native tongue.

Again, with reference to our future commercial relations with South America, another word of caution must be interjected. Like the United States, the Latin American countries limit the number of outsiders to be absorbed. International labor laws restrict, rather severely, the employment of people from other countries. In fact, many firms with wide interests throughout Latin America, employ in their business offices nationals of these countries, who know English, and much of their correspondence is conducted in English.

With the strengthening of relations between the United States and Brazil, interest in Portuguese, the language of our southern neighbor, has increased greatly. Portuguese is now taught in several high schools of New York City and at many of the colleges. It is worth noting that Brazil is the fourth largest country in the world and the largest country in South America, exceeding in area even the United States. Our commercial relations with Brazil promise to be of the happiest, since that country is largely undeveloped, possessing an unlimited supply of a score of raw materials which we need urgently and lacking many of the manufactured goods of which we have an abundance. At present, the demand for persons of various skills who also know Portuguese far exceeds the supply. This includes stenographers, salesmen, engineers, technicians, supervisors, nurses, teachers, etc.

Private business has always employed thousands of people largely because of their knowledge of one or more foreign languages. Such opportunities appear in international banking, international trade, publishing, broadcasting, the motion-picture industry, social service, journalism, libraries, research bureaus of industrial corporations, and in secretarial work for international executives, diplomats, men of letters, etc.

In our larger cities positions such as court interpreter are available to young people with facility in foreign languages. These are under the municipal civil service. There are similar positions with the Federal Government. Information regarding positions with the American Foreign Service may be obtained from the Secretary of State, Washington, D. C. A useful pamphlet is *The American Foreign Service,* Department of State Publication No. 1771, issued by the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

In preparation for possible positions with business houses or with various government agencies, students should plan their high-school and college courses carefully. Students enrolled in any course—academic, commercial, pre-engineering, scientific, art, or agriculture—may find their foreign language vocationally useful if combined with other skills.

Academic students may prepare for the following positions: executive in the foreign department of a firm; consular and diplomatic service; research worker; hostess on air lines; journalist (foreign language publications in the United States run into the thousands); international lawyer; scientific research; translator or interpreter; teaching the foreign language here, or English or other subjects in foreign countries.

A pre-engineering student, who has a good knowledge of a foreign language, may use it to advantage in aviation, all types of engineering, geology, paleontology, physics, sanitation, and transportation.

Commercial training which has included foreign languages should fit a student for export, shipping, advertising, banking, salesmanship, etc. Students who are interested in any of these fields would do well to familiarize themselves with such publications as *The American Exporter, Guía de Importadores de la Industria Americana,* and the *Export Trade* *and Shipper*. There are also agencies specializing in foreign language jobs; of those in New York the Beacon Foreign Language Bureau and the Job Finding Forum of the New York Advertising Club may be mentioned.

The extent to which a knowledge of foreign languages enters into American business is not fully appreciated by the average person. A very well known soft-drink concern reported that a few years ago the sales of its beverage were greater in Germany than in the United States. At present this concern is getting out a neat little booklet in Spanish for the domestic market and plans to follow this with brochures in six global languages. It has undertaken an extensive foreign-language advertising campaign in our papers and magazines.

When we consider that millions of people in the United States are of foreign origin and that in large sections of our metropolitan areas English is practically unheard, it is apparent how valuable facility in a foreign language may prove to any businessman. There is practically no community in the United States in which some German and Italian are not spoken, and in large areas of Texas and New Mexico Spanish is the current language.

As for music, especially vocal, German and Italian are almost *sine qua non*. Our opera is produced in the foreign tongue. Furthermore, every year many plays translated from other languages are presented in our theaters.

Teaching is also an attractive field. The demand for well-trained teachers of foreign languages is fairly constant. The demand for instructors in Spanish is increasing all over the country. In certain states, such as Texas, California, Florida, and New Mexico, Spanish has been introduced as a subject in the elementary schools. Students planning to teach a language, should, however, provide themselves with another major, since in many schools it is now necessary to teach more than one subject.

The possibilities, then, of using foreign languages vocationally are numerous, varied, and interesting. However, as cautioned above, facility in a foreign tongue should always be accompanied by a good knowledge of English and some special skill.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A TOOL OR A CULTURAL SUBJECT?

**Bryn J. Hovde**
*President, New School of Social Research*

[From *Report of the Thirteenth Annual Foreign Language Conference,* School of Education, New York University, Edited by H. Alpern and A. I. Katsh, 1947, pp. 4–5.]

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It is very difficult in what I now have to say to make any useful distinction between languages as tools and languages as cultural subjects. When properly used as cultural subjects they seem to me to be best used as tools. If for a moment we looked at languages narrowly as tools it would seem to me that the classical languages have a limited future indeed, but a safe one. Classical languages will in the future as in the past be used as tools by the Church, in the law, in history, in medicine, and other disciplines. Furthermore, it will always remain true that a knowledge of these languages will continue to be a valuable basis for learning other modern languages. Again, if we look at the modern languages narrowly as tools the same justification for their teaching and learning will exist in the future as in the past. They too will be used in the professions and in research. They will continue to have utilitarian value to travellers and perhaps more than ever to business. Government will almost certainly require an increasingly large number of employees equipped with one or more modern languages. There is hardly a single department or agency of the Federal Government that is not engaged in operational enterprises outside the boundaries of the United States. Most of them have enormous activities abroad. These various Governmental activities in other lands are for the most part coordinated by an Interdepartmental Committee which serves the Department of State and which presents to Congress annually a unified budget for overseas activities in all branches of the Government. In addition, of course, the Department of State itself, under the new Foreign Service Act, will expand its foreign service personnel and, let us trust, more adequately train it. Modern languages will form a considerable part of that training. Add to the growing personnel of various Government agencies engaged in activities beyond our national borders the considerable number of employees who will be appointed by the United Nations, its subordinate agencies, and various other international agencies, both public and private, and it may be said without contradiction that the demand upon the modern languages as tools will considerably increase. In this connection we should note also that as hyphenated Americans disappear we can no longer call upon them for language service and must, therefore, deliberately train a larger number of our young people in the modern languages. It seems to me, however, that this is about all that can be said for languages as tools.

As cultural subjects, the languages, both ancient and modern, have an enormous contribution to make, both to make life more pleasant and enjoyable and civilized, and to cause the world to realize the ideal of unity.

In the first place, the languages are the instruments of cultural accumulation and transmission. The literatures of every language, ancient or modern, are the stored-up linguistic expression of the culture of every people. Some consider it sufficient simply to read translations of such literatures and we will all admit that it is possible to glean from translations kernels of thought that are basic and important. Nevertheless, there is no adequate substitute for actually knowing the language and reading literatures in that language. Furthermore, knowing literature is, however valuable, merely to know a culture as it is formally presented. To know the intimate culture of any people one must know its language and practice it frequently. Literature never contains the totality of any culture. It contains a selection of proverbs, to be sure, but not all proverbs. Literatures seldom carry the pithy current phrase because too often that is considered beneath the dignity of literature and condemned as slang. And obviously, the printed page cannot carry the intonation of the spoken word. Culture in its intimate aspects manifests itself not so much *in* language as *through* language, but without language it cannot be appreciated.

Language is furthermore a force of socialization. A common language is in the modern world the strongest community bond of all. Such a community bond we do not have for all the world, and that is one reason why as many as possible must extend themselves linguistically beyond their own community groups. To the extent that we do it we bind the parts of the world more closely together.

I look upon the use of languages in travel, in student exchange, and in the exchange of professors as essentially cultural. The world depends upon this form of international education to build the defences of peace in the minds of men. No greater challenge confronts our time. If we cannot extend to include the whole globe the areas of our mutual sympathy and understanding we shall not prevent the next war. The languages have an enormous contribution to make in the fulfillment of this task.

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# 3 : FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE GENERAL CURRICULUM

## CORRELATION

[From *Final Report of the Committee on Modern Foreign Languages,* Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts, 1933, pp. 16–20.]

### I. The Importance of Correlation.

The teaching of any secondary school subject as an isolated unit rarely produces the broadest and most satisfactory results from the standpoint of the pupil. Only by a linking up with other subjects is the full object of instruction approximately attained. In order to emphasize the solidarity of all knowledge, to make that acquired in one field practically applicable to other fields, and in order to increase the sense of reality in the pursuit of study, it is necessary to make habitual in students' minds the recognition of cross relations between subjects.

### II. General Nature of Correlation Between Modern Foreign Languages and Other Subjects.

1. A general introductory study of the origin of the language.

2. A general outline of the mutual influences and interrelationships affecting the development of languages.

3. The study of cognates and derivatives.

4. The study of foreign expressions that have become part of the language.

5. The study of similarities and dissimilarities in pronunciation.

6. The study of the similarities and dissimilarities of grammatical structure and of idiom. To prevent waste motion in the teaching of languages and the burdening of the youthful mind with an unnecessary amount of technical grammatical terminology, it should be the business of all language teachers to see that there be as little variation as possible in grammatical nomenclature. They should work toward putting into effect as speedily as possible the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature of the National Educational Association, Modern Language Association, and American Philological Association.

7. The study of the history, geography, customs, literature, art, architecture, and music of the country whose language is being studied.

8. From the general nature of correlation outlined, it will be seen

that the study of modern foreign languages can be made to correlate most naturally and completely with other language subjects.

### III. CORRELATION BY SUBJECTS.

The following outline of means of establishing correlation with different subjects is merely suggestive of various opportunities that might be used to advantage. It is recognized that they cannot all be used even under ideal conditions.

1. ENGLISH
   - a. In so far as is consistent with the modern principles of teaching foreign languages, instruction should be directed toward the development of a command of the mother tongue.
   - b. Correlation between English and any foreign language should be continuous and reciprocal.
   - c. In the early work in English, especially in teaching the elements of grammar and phraseology, much could be done to help students who later will begin the study of foreign languages.
   - d. As the pupil's easiest and most natural method of comparison is with the English tongue, the modern foreign language teacher should freely make use of this fact to designate similarities and dissimilarities in construction, word meaning and spelling.
   - e. Collateral reading in English on some phase of foreign life, history or literature.
   - f. Collateral reading in a modern language on the same phases pertaining to English.
   - g. Instruction in the planning of free compositions or of reports written in the foreign language.
   - h. Correction, criticism and grading by English teachers of written English translations of selected passages from the modern language.
   - i. Correction, criticism and grading of written translations in modern languages of carefully selected passages from English literature.
   - j. For advanced or exceptional students written reports in English or modern foreign languages making a comparison of the works of English authors with those of modern language authors.

2. HISTORY
   - a. It is good pedagogy that the history of the country whose language is being studied be interpreted first hand and interest aroused in that subject by the modern language teachers. The geography as well as the literature of the country under consideration should be taught by them.
   - b. The interest thus aroused in these phases of the subject should be known and if possible utilized by the teachers of history.
   - c. Beginning at an early stage in history or modern language courses, easy collateral reading, both in English and in the language studied, involving the history of the country concerned.
   - d. An introductory study in the general history course of the history of the countries whose languages the pupils will study.

e. The formal study in modern language courses, over a fairly extended period of time, of the legends, the lives of national heroes, and the general outlines of history of European countries.
f. Notes and themes in foreign languages on periods of history and historical subjects.
g. The drawing of maps of European countries, in modern language as well as in history courses.
h. The extensive use of realia connected with the life of the nation studied.
i. An exchange of lectures on historical topics to classes in history and in the modern languages.

3. LATIN

a. As outlined under par. II, a general introductory study of the Latin origins and influences; a study of modern language and Latin cognates and of modern language derivatives from Latin roots; a study of the points where constructions run parallel and where they diverge.
b. The study of the Roman conquest of the European countries and the contributions made by Roman civilization to the development of modern European nationalities. Place names of Latin origin.
c. Written translations into modern foreign languages directly from elementary Latin works, such as mythological legends or Caesar's Commentaries.
d. The use of foreign language translations of Latin texts.
e. *Where possible,* a closer approach to uniformity in the methods of teaching Latin and the modern foreign languages.
f. For exceptional students an introductory study of late Latin and early foreign language works of importance, through carefully chosen selections.

4. OTHER MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

a. The general adoption of the practices suggested in par. II.
b. An introductory and broad outline study of the relations of the different European nationalities and of the points of history wherever there are contacts. A general idea of the gradual growth of European nations in the spirit of internationalism.
c. A closer approach to uniformity in the methods of teaching all modern foreign languages.
d. Written translations directly from one modern foreign language to another.

5. SCIENCE

a. The study of the roles played by outstanding scientists of foreign countries and of their contributions to modern civilization, both through material studied in English in Science courses and that studied in the foreign language.
b. Short reading assignments in popular scientific periodicals published in the modern foreign languages.
c. Information given in Science courses as to recent scientific discoveries made by modern foreign scientists.
d. The use of reference books in Science courses written in modern foreign languages.

6. THE ARTS AND MUSIC
   - a. Information as to the lives and works of great artists and musicians of foreign countries through readings in English or in foreign languages.
   - b. Familiarity with the great foreign works of art through the liberal use of realia, such as photographs, reproductions, copies, or illustrations in textbooks.
   - c. Familiarity with the well known songs and musical compositions of foreign countries through musical renditions or phonographic records.
   - d. A generous equipment in the way of reference books on art in foreign countries and a liberal use of it in both art and modern language courses.

## THE GENERALIST'S CASE AGAINST MODERN LANGUAGES

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[From *FR*, VII, 2, Dec. 1933, 125–137.]

I have been asked to summarize, as pointedly as I can, the case against the teaching of modern languages in American secondary schools as the generalist sees it. Most of my discussion will necessarily, therefore, be devoted to the notoriously easy and thankless task of adverse criticism. I should like to make clear at the start that in presenting this criticism I am not pretending to set forth any new points of view. Every objection that I shall raise has already been raised, I believe, by specialists in the field which I am undertaking to criticize. As a generalist, I can hardly presume to know things about the teaching of modern languages which those who are giving their whole thought and energy to improving the work of that field do not already know. All that I can do is to show how the teaching of modern languages looks from a somewhat different standpoint from that of one who is immersed in the problems of the field.

I ought, perhaps, to make clear also that though I shall talk about "the generalist's" position, I have specific authority to speak for only one generalist—namely, myself. I am confident that numerous other generalists would of their own accord advance the major criticisms which I shall set forth. I am reasonably confident, furthermore, that the criticisms which I shall present comprise *most* of the important criticisms that generalists at large are inclined to advance. But since I cannot fairly undertake to speak for all generalists, I would strongly urge that the case against modern languages as I shall try to present it be considered first of all on its own merits, and only secondarily in terms of whatever weight it may have as being representative of generalist opinion.

The essence of what I have to say can be set forth very briefly. The generalist's case against modern languages as they are commonly taught seems to me to comprise two major counts. First: *Modern-language teachers attach to their subjects a degree of importance which cannot be justified in terms of any real value which the subjects hold for the vast majority of American boys and girls.* Second: *Modern-language teachers teach their subjects by methods which tend to destroy even the importance which the subjects may justly claim.*

To substantiate the first of these criticisms, let me describe in summary fashion what seem to be the views of modern-language teachers as to the place of their subjects in the high-school program, commenting on those views, one by one, from the standpoint of the generalist.

Modern-language teachers tend to assume that the ability to *speak* a foreign language is important to many pupils. They present various arguments to support this assumption. They contrast the provincial outlook of most Americans, who can speak only their own tongue, with the presumably broader culture of well-educated Europeans, who are reputed to command from two to a half-dozen foreign languages. They emphasize the importance of ability to speak French, or German, or Spanish, to one who may some day spend a summer vacation in Europe. They point to the increasingly widespread foreign commercial interests of the United States, and dwell upon the vocational opportunities open to the person who commands a foreign language. From all these points of view—the cultural, the recreational, the vocational—they seem to find fluency in speaking a foreign language so great an asset as to justify the study of one or more foreign languages by a large proportion of American boys and girls.[1]

Now the generalist would grant that ability to speak a foreign language may be of value in any or all of these respects. The generalist would assert, however, that the probability that command of a foreign language *will* be of either immediate or deferred value is exceedingly small in the case of most Americans.

So far as immediate use of a language is concerned, no just analogy can be drawn between American pupils and European pupils. There are certain sections of the United States which are bi-lingual—most notably the Eastern Canadian border, the Mexican border, and the coastal regions of certain States fronting the Gulf of Mexico. Small sections of some of the large cities of the United States are also bi-lingual. In these areas ability to speak an illiterate French or Italian or German, or to converse in a mongrel sort of Spanish, may be of marked practical and recreational advantage. But conditions in the United States as a whole do not even remotely approximate the conditions in Europe that make command of a foreign language advantageous for the educated European. If English were the traditional language of the New England States, and French were the language of the Middle Atlantic region; if Southerners spoke German, and inhabitants of the Middle West spoke Italian, and Westerners spoke Spanish—then American conditions with respect to the command of a diversity of languages might resemble conditions in Europe. Perhaps the increasing number of foreign radio programs available to American listeners, or an increase in American interest in foreign plays and moving pictures, may bring about significant changes. But as things now are, the opportunity in America to converse, or even to hear normal conversation, in another language than English is in general so rare as to be of negligible importance.

So far as the deferred values of the command of a foreign language are concerned, the generalist would hold that they affect only an infinitesimal proportion of American high-school pupils. How many of the boys and girls now enrolled in foreign language classes can actually look forward to as much as one chance in a hundred of vacationing in Europe? How many can count upon even one chance in a thousand that they will be employed in commercial occupations in which ability to speak a foreign tongue is important? And of those few who do eventually find recreational or commercial use for their foreign-language ability, how many will find it soon enough after they leave high school to have kept the results of their high-school study from rusting completely away?

From the generalist's point of view the ability to *speak* a foreign language represents, in sum, a highly improbable value. Even for those few boys and girls who may at length achieve this value, the benefits to be gained from it are necessarily so long deferred as to provide small justification for extensive study of modern languages in the high school. Other values must be shown if modern languages are to occupy an important place in the secondary-school curriculum.

Modern-language teachers assert other values. They tend to assume that ability to *read* a foreign language is quite as important as ability to speak the language. In part they support this assumption by the same arguments which they use to justify the development of speaking ability —the recreational, the vocational, the superficially cultural. In part they tend to fall back on a further argument—the argument that only through ability to read a European literature in the original can the essence of European culture be appreciated, and that only through familiarity with the European way of thought can the influence of our new, crass, materialistic American civilization be sufficiently offset to produce a thoroughly cultured person.

The supposed recreational and vocational values to be gained through ability to read a foreign language may be briefly dealt with. In the case of the vast majority of American boys and girls the generalist would be only somewhat less skeptical of these values than of the corresponding values in connection with ability to speak in a foreign tongue. There are clearly more opportunities in America to read a foreign language than to speak that language. From the vocational standpoint, however, the need to read a foreign language affects a negligible number of people. From the purely recreational standpoint, it is doubtful if a foreign literature is for most people as valuable as reading in the mother tongue. It is not that there is no "fun" in reading foreign literature. With adequate command of the language, the subject matter of the literature may be highly recreational. Furthermore, the reader may perhaps also find in his reading the satisfaction that many people find in solving puzzles. But for most people there would seem to be more recreation in reading about persons and events and surroundings in which the reader can take a close and somewhat personal interest than in reading about incompletely envisaged happenings in a foreign setting.[2] The *relative* recreational values of reading in one's own language and reading in a foreign language clearly need consideration; and from the generalist's point of view the former seems by and large to promise the greater values.

If the effort to develop widespread reading ability is to be adequately justified, therefore, the reputed cultural values to be derived from reading a foreign language must bulk larger than the vocational and recreational values. Most generalists, I think, would grant the modern-language teacher's contention that European culture can be fully comprehended only by one who can read European literature in the original. But few generalists would grant that "full" comprehension of European culture is as important for Americans in general as numerous modern-language teachers seem to regard it.

The culture of the Old World represents one kind of culture—a kind which I shall not attempt to define, lest the inadequacy of my definition draw attention from the major point at issue. America possesses a developing culture of her own—a culture which emphasizes different standards, different interests, different meanings from those of the traditional culture of Europe, but which is no less real and living than that of Europe, and which is not to be denied merely by calling it new or crass or materialistic. The culture of America admittedly lacks elements that are prominent in the culture of Europe. But to infer that the one is Culture with a capital *C*, and that the other is a mere set of bad manners affected by a nation of *nouveaux riches,* is to miss the whole meaning of New World civilization. The truth is that the two cultures are different, serving different peoples in different surroundings, and not that the older is *ipso facto* superior to the newer. And it is in the midst of the newer culture that the boys and girls in American high schools must be prepared to live.

If, then, a choice must be made between the two cultures, the generalist would place chief emphasis on the culture of America. As a matter of fact, a choice between the two is practically inevitable. Nothing approaching "full" appreciation of any nation's culture can be achieved except by making one's self a part of that nation's life—mastering its language, becoming acquainted with its traditions, exploring its products. No less than a life-time would be needed to acquire the necessary understandings, whether of the culture of one's own country or of that of a foreign nation. Hence, to the extent that one actually succeeded in immersing one's self in a foreign culture, to that extent would one be depriving one's self of opportunity to gain comprehension of one's own national inheritance. We have had Americans who have thus succeeded. Henry James was one; Julian Green is another—expatriates both.

This does not mean that the generalist would have the school ignore European cultures. Full appreciation of America can hardly be attained without a knowledge of how American culture has come to be, of the major respects in which it differs from other cultures, of the influences that are now affecting it. All these things American high-school pupils ought to learn. But most of these things can be learned in large measure through the medium of English. No doubt they could be better learned through the medium of foreign languages. The question of relative value is again, however, of fundamental importance. Whether the results to be gained from mastering a foreign language and using that language in protracted study of a foreign culture atone for the inevitable sacrifice of time devoted to the study of one's own language and one's own national culture—that is the essential question. The generalist would hold that for the great majority of American boys or girls the time spent in becoming acquainted with foreign cultures through the medium of a foreign language is seldom justified, and in the nature of things can seldom be justified, by the relative cultural advantages gained.

Thus the benefit claimed for a reading knowledge of foreign languages, like the benefits claimed for a speaking knowledge, seem to represent highly improbable values for most pupils. But modern-language teachers tend to assume still other values from the study of their subjects. These further values may appropriately be considered in the nature of *indirect outcomes.*

Two types of indirect outcomes are commonly emphasized. There are, first, the supposed effects of foreign-language study upon ability to use and interpret the English language effectively, and upon the development of a discriminating appreciation of English literature. Modern-language teachers frequently place great emphasis upon the value of studying foreign language as a means of improvement in English. There are, second, the reputed effects of foreign-language study on the development of such general qualities as concentration, accurate observation, logical thinking, and imagination. Modern-language teachers tend to vie with teachers of mathematics and the classics in claiming that study of their subjects develops these qualities to a unique degree.

The question involved in a just appraisal of these claims is the question of whether a learner does actually gain from the study of any one subject abilities which he transfers in appreciable degree to the study of other subjects or to activities not closely related to school subject matter. There is an increasing wealth of psychological evidence bearing on this point. Most of the existing evidence has been so well summarized by Dr. Guy M. Whipple in the 27th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education that there is no need to rehearse it in detail here. It will perhaps be sufficient to point out that while transfer of the sort which modern-language teachers claim does actually take place, the degree to which such transfer occurs seems to depend directly on at least two conditions. In the first place, the degree of transfer is apparently dependent on the degrees of similarity between the subjects studied and the situations in which the outcomes of the study are to be applied. In the second place, the degree of transfer seems to be dependent on the extent to which the teacher directly "teaches" the transfer—points out to pupils the situations in which they will have opportunity to use what they are learning, develops in the pupils an active desire to use their learning in the situations in question, gives the pupils specific practice in using that learning in such situations. From the standpoint of the generalist, this psychological evidence tends seriously to discount the claims of modern-language teachers (and of teachers of numerous other subjects as well) for indirect values in the study of their subjects.

The generalist would grant that pupils may—and no doubt do—increase their proficiency in English by studying French or German or Spanish. He would hold, however, that study of a foreign language as such cannot possibly have as direct a bearing on improvement in English as can the study of English itself. If certain elements in the foreign-language study contribute directly to better understanding of English, then those elements may well be made a part of the English course. This has already been done—not always well done, to be sure—in connection with word derivations and certain aspects of fundamental grammatical usage. But to carry pupils through years of foreign-language study for the sake of a few somewhat isolated learnings is neither economical nor in the long run highly effective.

The generalist would grant also that pupils may—and no doubt do—gain in the general qualities of concentration, accurate observation, logical thinking, and imagination through foreign-language study. But he would regard improvement in these qualities as results primarily of the methods of teaching employed, rather than of the subject matter studied. He would point out that methods of teaching which tend to develop these qualities can be used and are being used in many high-school subjects. Though modern languages as subjects of study may be vehicles for general learning, unprejudiced investigation seems to show that they are neither necessary vehicles nor—what is more important—peculiarly successful vehicles for such learning.

The generalist would hold, in sum, that neither foreign languages nor any other subject can justify a place in the high-school curriculum merely in terms of indirect outcomes. Such outcomes are primarily a function of direct values on the one hand and of methods of teaching on the other. Hence subject matter as such can be justified only in terms of what it is directly good for in the case of the pupils who are to study it.

From the generalist's point of view the value of modern languages must therefore be determined on the basis of the two types of outcomes discussed earlier—ability to speak a foreign language and ability to read that language. As I have indicated, most modern-language teachers seem to consider these outcomes more important for the majority of pupils than does the generalist. The result of the teachers' appraisal of their field is that they encourage altogether too many pupils, from the generalist's standpoint, to elect foreign languages. I do not mean to assert that modern-language teachers go out into the highways and by-ways of their schools seeking to attract pupils, or that they consciously advise boys and girls to elect foreign languages in preference to subjects which would be of greater value. But I do believe that modern-language teachers tend to be too complacent in accepting pupils for their beginning classes; that they fail to scrutinize with sufficient care the reasonable expectations of profit from the study of foreign languages to the individual pupils concerned; that they present to their pupils arguments for studying their subjects which all too often will not bear the test of reasoned analysis.

Here ends any attempt to support the generalist's case against modern languages on the first count: that modern-language teachers attach to their subjects a degree of importance which cannot be justified in terms of any real value which the subjects hold for the vast majority of American boys and girls. I have, perhaps, restricted myself so completely to adverse criticism that I have made it seem that the generalist finds no place whatever for modern languages in the high-school curriculum. That is not at all the fact, as I shall try eventually to show. But since I am charged primarily with presenting arguments *against* modern languages, I am inclined for the present to omit the case *for* modern languages, and proceed to the second count: Modern-language teachers teach their subjects by methods which tend to destroy even the importance which the subjects may justly claim.

Up to this point, the specific criticisms which I have presented have for the most part concerned modern languages as distinct from other subjects in the curriculum. The two major criticisms which I have now to present are not strictly applicable to modern languages alone. They apply in varying measure to a number of other subjects in the curriculum—particularly to those subjects which, like modern languages, have a considerable academic tradition behind them. In all fairness, the widespread application of these criticisms needs to be recognized. But in all fairness likewise, the fact that the criticisms apply to a number of fields should make them of no less concern to teachers of modern language than are criticisms which are peculiar to the single field in question.

The first of these more broadly applicable criticisms is to the effect that modern-language teachers teach their subjects as if every one of their pupils was to become a specialist in those subjects. The methods which modern-language teachers adopt are no doubt to be explained in part by a desire to uphold thoroughly scholarly standards. But insistence on high standards need not inevitably mean a course of study in which all or nothing are the only possible choices. To a considerable extent the programs which modern-language teachers offer in American secondary schools present examples of such a course. The all-or-nothing quality of the work is most clearly indicated by the fact that colleges will not accept, and many high schools will not credit, less than two years of secondary-school foreign language study. Individual modern-language teachers are frequently even more pessimistic than are the colleges as to the results of relatively brief language study: extremists among them suggest that nothing short of five or six years of continuous application will produce results of usable value. As a consequence of this attitude, the teaching of modern languages tends, under present conditions, to be one of the most wasteful enterprises of the American secondary school. Only a handful of pupils elect more than three years of foreign-language study; most pupils elect only two years; and large numbers, in spite of the loss of credit involved, drop out at the end of a single year. According to the statements of modern-language teachers themselves (amply supported by the evidence gathered in the recent Modern Language Investigation), only the pupils who persist long enough in language study to have virtually concentrated in that field derive tangible benefit from their work. The rest—an overwhelming majority—have at best a few graduation credits to show, and practically nothing more.

Whether concentration in modern languages is actually a necessary condition for profitable study in that field the generalist cannot determine. In the nature of things, the generalist can do little more with respect to methods of teaching in any special field than appraise the results of the methods now in use. He must leave to the specialist the task of devising new and more promising methods. In the field of modern-language teaching the specialists have by no means been idle. The experiments which they have carried on with foreign-language courses so organized that each successive year of effort brings a year's worth of learning, valuable irrespective of further study, are from the generalist's standpoint distinctly promising. The results from certain experimental introductory courses in foreign language would seem to have been especially valuable. But the fact remains that as modern-language courses are now taught—perhaps in some measure as they must always be taught—most such courses tend to be suitable only for pupils who will eventually become foreign-language "scholars"; and in estimating the relative value of various types of secondary-school work, this is a fact which the generalist cannot overlook.

A second characteristic which weighs against methods of modern-language teaching in the eyes of the generalist is the fact that as it is now conducted, the teaching in this field seems often to be needlessly formal. Modern-language teachers appear in many instances to have adopted the point of view that "knowledge for the sake of knowledge" is a sufficient reason for learning. Disregarding the uses to which command of a foreign language may be put (except as pupils are promised a revelation at some distant date of the beauties of foreign literature), teachers proceed rigorously to drill upon vocabulary, pronunciation, grammatical rules, and textbook translation, all to no end that the pupil can see except that these things are included in the course. Of the fact that even elementary acquaintance with a foreign language allows one to read many things in foreign books and magazines, to decipher foreign signs, to enjoy certain foreign plays (movies in particular), the pupils get almost no hint. Still less do they get any developing comprehension of what a more and more thorough command of the language may be good for, in its bearing on an understanding of foreign peoples, foreign customs, foreign points of view. So narrowly linguistic, indeed, do many foreign-language courses seem to be, that what the command of a foreign language is *for*—what can be done with the language, in relation to boys' and girls' own active interests—apparently does not dawn even on pupils who persist successfully through three or four years of the courses in question. Modern-language study not merely fails, that is to say, to be of value to pupils who pursue it only briefly; it fails as well in the case of many pupils who spend unstinted time and effort on it.

Again the generalist cannot offer detailed proposals for improvements in method. He can, however, note that here and there individual teachers of modern language are using methods which make foreign languages "mean something" to their pupils; and he can commend the methods of these teachers to the attention of modern-language teachers in general.

Failing the adoption of improved methods in modern-language courses, the generalist is likely to continue in the impression that many pupils fall by the wayside who might have succeeded under less academic and less formal teaching. He is likely to continue also in the impression that of those pupils who survive, depressingly few have gained or kept any independent interest in using what they have learned. The defects of modern-language teaching in these respects represent the major items under the second count in the generalist's case against modern languages.

In justice to the subject as a whole, I ought to conclude this discussion by showing the extent to which the generalist is in favor of the study of modern languages in the secondary school, as well as the extent to which he is opposed to such study. Perhaps I can do so by a brief summary of the generalist's position in positive as well as in negative terms.

The generalist would recognize that modern languages have a rightful place in the high-school curriculum: they represent a legitimate and possibly fruitful field of study for certain high-school pupils.

The generalist would maintain, however, that the field of modern languages is likely to be only occasionally fruitful for American pupils. He would recognize that under present conditions command of a modern language possesses and can possess for American boys and girls values which are primarily intellectual, only secondarily cultural, and very seldom immediately practical. He would hold that a field of study offering chiefly intellectual values is appropriate for a selected minority of high-school pupils, but not for the majority.

In view of the type of values offered by modern-language study, the generalist would urge careful guidance of pupils with respect to modern-language courses. He would favor the admission to such courses of pupils who possessed both marked intellectual ability and strong intellectual interests—particularly linguistic interests. He would recommend the use of all practicable means, however, for selecting such pupils *before* their admission to specialized study, instead of at the end of a year-long gauntlet of formal linguistic training; and he would urge the guidance away from modern-language courses of pupils who did not give positive evidence of capacity to profit by specialized language study.

Finally, the generalist would welcome methods of teaching modern languages which would make the study of languages intelligible and profitable step by step, even to pupils who were never to become specialists in languages. What these methods should be the generalist cannot prescribe. But except as such methods can be devised, the generalist is likely to continue in the belief that modern languages tend to be of much less potential value in the high-school program than numerous other subjects, even for highly capable pupils.

## NOTES

1. I do not cite the argument that development of ability to speak a foreign language is an important step toward fluency in reading the language, since the question involved in this argument is one of means to an end rather than of ultimate values. Whether skill in speaking is indeed essential to fluency in reading is properly a question for the specialist in modern languages, not for the generalist.

2. I am here assuming that the foreign literature does actually provide significant elements of strangeness in the motives or attitudes or environment with which it deals. If there is nothing strange about it, one may presumably read equally artistic literature in one's own language with at least equal recreational profit.

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# SOME GENERALIST FALLACIES

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[From *FR*, VII, 6, May 1934, 461–470.]

Mr. F. T. Spaulding gives, in a recent article,[1] the opinions of one generalist on the place of modern languages in the schools. The present paper supplies the opinions of one teacher of languages on the same subject. A number of fundamental fallacies seem to underlie the generalist's arguments.

It is alleged that modern language teachers attach undue importance to their subjects and that the languages are so taught as to destroy even such importance as they may justly claim. Speaking ability is considered of little value to most Americans. What students learn in school should be of some use to them. Language teachers have exaggerated the importance of knowing how to read a foreign language. Language work benefits a student's English but little, and the parts of the language program that do have value in this regard might well be made a part of the work in English. It is almost positively known that there can be little transfer value from foreign language to English. Such are the views and assertions that it is our purpose to refute.

Ability to speak a foreign tongue may be of little value, financially, to the average American, but many able American students want to acquire such ability. Through classroom efforts this goal is not attainable for the average student, nor for any student unless he can and will devote a great deal of time and give steady application to his foreign language study. But those who do learn to speak with a fair fluency are as proud of that accomplishment as of any gained through their school experience. Here is, then, a value as great as any financial value. The majority who do not learn to speak, though taught in the same classes as the others, acquire some feeling for the language that will assist them in reading it, or in learning later to speak it, and their efforts, provided there has been sound training in grammar along the way, will help their English immeasurably. These statements are based upon the assumption that speaking is one of the aims of the instruction, which is not always the case. In spite of what may be said in favor of teaching students to speak, the *reading aim is undoubtedly the better one for the American student.*

In considering reading knowledge, Mr. Spaulding denies that "full" comprehension of European culture is as important for most Americans as modern language teachers seem to believe, while he admits that such comprehension would probably be available only to those with a reading knowledge of one or more foreign languages. He also states, in effect, that complete familiarity with a foreign culture is not desirable in any event, because no less than a lifetime is needed to master the culture of any one country, and devotion to a foreign culture detracts, therefore, from the enjoyment of the culture of the native land. This theory needs modification. Many of us know several individuals who are as familiar with the civilization and life of two or more foreign countries as are reasonably intelligent, moderately trained natives of those countries. But why should not acquaintance with a foreign country take the form of partial familiarity with it, inasmuch as it is given to few of us to be fully conversant with all the features of the subjects in which we take an interest? Such partial familiarity will be had more readily if one has a reading knowledge of the language of the people, since reading in the original makes possible a fuller and more intimate understanding than can be had at long range without it. Even less than a reading knowledge may also be of value to an American. If one reads travel books in English dealing with several countries of the world, he will have a far more satisfactory acquaintance with the peoples of whose language he has a little knowledge than with those of whose idiom he knows nothing at all. This is one of the realities the type of which it is a prime fault of the generalists not to take into account as they go about their theorizings. Such familiarity with Old World culture as may be necessary for the full appreciation of America and American culture may be had in a far less detached way than otherwise if the student has a little of the language of one or more of the prominent European peoples.

Many regard the improvement in English that is afforded by foreign language work as the most worth while purpose of such study. The view of the generalists is: let English be taught in the English class. Let it, indeed, if and when teachers of English show by their results that it can be done. The very poorest language students frequently state that, while they have learned little French or Spanish or German in their courses in these subjects, they have at least gained for the first time some understanding of the structure of the mother tongue. The better student's understanding of English is helped a great deal also, but in the way of filling gaps, while the poor ones are filling virtual vacuums. All students have had rather continuous instruction in English from about age six onward, but gain their first reasonably complete understanding of it when they learn through rigorous drill the structure of the foreign language and compare it with that of the English. Those who know several related foreign languages testify that each added language has served as a valuable buttress to the one first learned, or to that in which the greatest interest is felt. In the same way, work in any of the foreign languages usually studied in America helps one's English. The apparent transfer of knowledge from one field to another really is not transfer at all. It may be explained by the fact that, in large measure, English *is* French, or *is* German, or *is* Latin. Foreign language courses thus become further courses in English, and of a kind most students sorely need.

"If certain elements in the foreign-language study contribute directly to better understanding of English, then those elements may well be made a part of the English course." [2] This is easier said than done. "Those elements" either are of the kind that would be largely meaningless if separated from the original language, or are the sort of thing that teachers of English have been trying in vain to get across for years. The program suggested in the quotes would be fulfilled only by incorporating into the English course a full-fledged elementary year of foreign language to be taught by a teacher of foreign languages. The English would then become a double course, and we would have what the generalists destroy when they remove language requirements from curricula or, going further to do greater damage, suppress foreign language work in the schools.

If the transfer from language work to English must be taught before it will occur (which to this writer seems extremely doubtful in view of the fact that he has himself repeatedly accomplished such transfer for his students, according to their own testimony, with scarcely any direct teaching of it), then the teaching can best be done by the foreign language instructor, who has seen and felt the transfer more often than has the teacher of English.

Certain benefits to English from language work have been described well by Mr. William R. Price: "The old grammar-translation method of teaching foreign languages, especially of the teaching of Latin and Greek to the dead and dying generations, had one inestimable advantage: it did teach English (and when continued long enough it also taught Latin and Greek). It taught respect for the meaning of words; it sought for the exact English equivalent and was satisfied with nothing less than the best." [3] Fortunately, most teachers of foreign languages retain enough of the old methods to teach a great deal of English still. The new rapid-reading method has not caused the emphasis to be taken off grammar to a sufficient extent to destroy completely the value of language study as an aid to English. Moreover, by no means all of the teachers of modern languages in America use the new method.

The modern languages, especially the Romance languages, supply most of the advantages of the ancient ones without such disadvantages of the latter as complete inflections of verbs and nouns, with consequent tedious study, and complexity in construction and word-order, resulting in the comparative impossibility of learning to read in anything like a reasonable time.

One wonders whether the liability of the average person to understand the real meanings of English words and sentences, which has been most recently discussed in print by H. R. Huse,[4] may not be due in part to the absence of rigorous foreign language training. Translation into English would constitute one effective means of eradicating the "illiteracy of the literate." In so far as the inability to read is prevalent among recent graduates of schools and colleges, may it not indicate a coming home to roost of the practices of the educational theorists? For it has been partly in response to their insistence that language work has been so changed as to include less translation and grammar, and that complete suppression of language courses has already taken place in certain schools.

In this discussion of the relation of foreign language study to that of

English, just as in his references to culture, Mr. Spaulding assumes that many years of language study under the present methods of teaching are necessary to accomplish anything worth mentioning. Most of the benefits to English accrue the first year of the foreign language through the study of elementary linguistics. If translation is used in the later years, benefits to English result then also but involve vocabulary rather than systematic grammar.

Language people have long claimed gain in concentration, in habits of thought, in imagination through the study of their subjects. The generalists frequently state with considerable emphasis that other subjects, indeed almost any subject, may supply the same training. And so they may, but they usually do not; they can be so taught as to provide it, but usually are not. Until the other subjects have departed from their tradition and natural procedures, and have come to be handled so methodically as to furnish this training, why not leave undisturbed and unhampered the subjects of study which are inherently adapted to supplying it, and which can, indeed, scarcely be taught at all without supplying it? How frequently students state that their only subject to require daily application is their language! If it is agreed that we want our students to acquire the habit of work, of close concentration and sustained application, we must then leave in the curriculum the languages which alone have provided in the past, and which still almost universally provide, the closest approach to a wholesomely rigorous discipline that the student ever meets.

The language teacher is accused of encouraging or permitting students to elect his subject for reasons that will not "bear the test of reasoned analysis." Of certain of the reasons which many of us retail to our students this assertion may be true. But it is more true of the reasons given for studying almost any other subject. In so far as we are guilty we are sinning in good and numerous company; we are playing the game according to rules tacitly agreed upon. If students fail to elect a language what will be the alternative? The answer: subjects equally or a little more "interesting," on the whole easier and less useful, with many of which the student is as familiar already as he will ever need or desire to be, and most of the rest of which he will learn of sufficiently, if he has average intelligence, by merely keeping his eyes open as he goes along through life. Teachers of other subjects tell the student whatever will put him in their classes, with little regard for his best interests; why should not teachers of languages start a crusade entirely their own?

Mr. Spaulding refers to the all-or-nothing attitude of language teachers. This seems to mean that we want nearly perfect work and a number of years of it. This writer believes he remembers hearing somewhere a vague reference to a reading goal to be reached by the end of the second year of study. Reference has already been made to the elementary understanding of the attitudes of foreign peoples and to the advantages to the student's familiarity with his own native language that accrue during the first year. (There is a proportionate advance in these things even when the student remains in the language course less than a year.) The third and fourth years supply a more polished reading ability, greater familiarity with the literature and civilization of the foreign people (the earlier years should arouse in these matters a curiosity which can then be only partially satisfied), an improved pronunciation, and, for those willing to pay the price in reasonably hard, consistent work, fair speaking and writing facility. Thus gains are made which are almost directly proportionate to the length of time the student continues his study.

It is true that there are differences of opinion as to the best way of reaching the reading goal set for the close of the second year, but the majority of teachers seem to agree that the end in view at that point is ability to read. One difference of opinion has to do with translation, another with the worth of, and necessity for, simplified texts.

The suggestion that the student who remains in language work only three years out of a possible five or six is thought by his teachers to have wasted his time is not borne out by the facts; neither is the view that we expect every one of our students to become a language specialist, and that we proceed accordingly. Ample provision is made in the programs of most of us for the average, or even the poor, student, and they get adequate benefits from a year (familiarity with the structure of English) or two (reading knowledge) of a foreign language.

Are our classes needlessly formal, as alleged? It has been the impression of this writer that we rather sin in the opposite direction of informality, that we wander afield in the discussion of life and literature and the comparison of the American and European points of view, to the detriment, at times, of the possibly more essential linguistic work at hand. Subjected to a jazzing-up under the influences of the generalists, we have tried to motivate our students. Now we are at the point where we must rid ourselves of enough motivation and informality to do as good work as formerly. Why have so many of the very best students in the schools and colleges been so bored or annoyed by classes in "interesting" or "practical" or "popular" subjects, where the proper effort to motivate them was being made, that they have found a grateful refuge in language work?

Do we fail in the case of students who spend unstinted time and effort on our work? Ask them. Many of them continue it of their own volition through four years in preparatory school and four more years in college without a thought of pecuniary return, and express gratitude afterwards to their various teachers for having provided them with instruction at once enjoyable and of sound value. In spite of seeing far easier ways of accumulating credits, they remain in language work and seem satisfied. Are they only fooled? Are they fooling us? Most people think not.

Beginning with the idea that what students learn in school should be of some use to them, and assuming that there must be a great deal wrong with any existing curriculum, the generalists have made efforts to bring about changes before knowing with certainty that the subjects they seek to displace are of less value than those they recommend. After a few years these same generalists have frequently found fault with the programs previously laid out with the greatest assurance by themselves. Comparatively few subjects are of "practical" use in the sense that they are certain or likely to increase the money-making powers of the individual. Recognizing this fact, but not always too frankly, the generalists conclude to have students, as a part of their preparation for citizenship, devote more time than heretofore to the study of economic, social, and political conditions. But these are fields in which even specialists find more and more to puzzle them as time goes on. The college graduate who has majored in such work discusses recent social and political trends with little more understanding than the farmer trained in the district school. Much the same situation obtains in the study of English and American literature by young women destined by their nature and permitted by their considerable leisure to do a great deal of reading. They will do about the same kind and quantity of reading without the literature study as with it. Perhaps, then, the generalists are laying increased stress on fields of which little is, or can be, known; and they seem to advocate supplying students with a knowledge of everyday matters that will eventually be had by everyone whether or not he attends school. But language work, if not taken in the schools, in most cases is not to be had at all.

If their program must resolve itself into the improvement of leisure (as it will despite a great deal of loose talk about practical ends), what better subject for the generalists' purpose than a foreign language? Any who acquire either a reading or a speaking ability enjoy it and are proud of it. A true reading or speaking ability once acquired can be easily reacquired, and after years of neglect.

Typical of the generalists' activities is the readiness with which they would require a departure from the established and customary methods of teaching English and the social sciences, so distorting those subjects that they might supply educational values to be had more readily in language courses conducted about as they have always been. Then the language work must in its turn be altered so as to accord with another set of advanced but still questionable theories, or must give way altogether to a pleasurable but highly speculative new course. Although the generalists can by no means be certain that their changes will bring improvements, they seem always to feel free to interfere with teachers and to sacrifice to their own experiments the educational opportunities of students.

Mr. Myron E. Duckles [5] effectively states the case for the imponderable values in foreign languages, which are ignored in the utilitarian program of the generalists: "They [certain schools of education] rule out of consideration anything that smacks at all of mysticism, yet we are well aware that, modestly, four-fifths of what enters into the training of the distinguished persons whom we recognize as belonging to the highly cultured and intellectual classes of the world, has little practical use, as the term is popularly understood."

While the generalists in their complacency are waiting for language teachers to arrange a program satisfactory to them, one that will make the study of languages "intelligible and profitable, step by step, even to pupils who are never to become specialists in languages," the American public itself may begin to question the work of the generalists, and to demand more conclusive proof than any yet offered of the desirability of curtailing the work in languages and certain other studies in favor of subjects of a supposedly higher and more noble nature. Or some one may question the reason for offering practical and "profitable" courses in which students will be prepared to enter fields already vastly overcrowded. Or the public may hearken to the voices of classroom teachers of all subjects who have thus far silently endured the largely futile experimentations and pronouncements and theorizings of the generalists, but are now, in ever increasing numbers, questioning the work and recommendations of the theorists.

It seems that the case of Mr. Spaulding against the modern languages, as well as that of the generalists as a whole, is based upon a largely mythical or imaginary conception of what work in languages is, or was. Their statements actually reflect only the thing that our work is by them supposed to have been. Criticism of our formality, for example, is in line with their general misconception of the methods, purposes, and attainments of language teaching. This writer has observed the work of a great many teachers working under various conditions, but has never come face-to-face with the state of affairs usually taken for granted by the generalists. Can it be that these latter formulated their views and made their plans many years ago and have failed to look about since that time?

Or, is it possible that, as they observe us, they notice only those practices which are in accordance with their preconceived ideas and which supply the best excuses for carrying out their plans, and that they ignore perhaps the greater part of the activity of the teacher of languages?

How many believe that the generalists should, for the present, confine their activity to experimentation of a harmless sort, to the observation of what has been and can be learned by experience as opposed to experiment, to the detection of their own errors, to general and rigorous self-improvement, and should forego their much-used privilege of advancing programs for the betterment of the schools? Until they know with a reasonable degree of certainty what it is that they want to do, learn to use ordinary good sense in determining in advance the workability of their proposals, and reach a sound working basis without the need for too frequent changes in their methods and recommendations, the generalists will do well to retrace their steps and cease their efforts to displace a language program at present reasonably satisfactory to the teacher and beneficial to the pupils.

## NOTES

1. "The Generalist's Case against Modern Languages," *French Review,* VII, 125–137.

2. *Ibid.,* p. 132.

3. "Shorn Lambs," *Mod. Lang. Journ.,* XVIII, p. 156.

4. *The Illiteracy of the Literate: A Guide to the Art of Intelligent Reading,* Appleton-Century, New York, 1934.

5. "The Case for Foreign Language in the High School," *Mod. Lang. Journ.,* XVIII, p. 307.

# THE OBJECTIVES OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE STUDY IN THE GENERAL CURRICULUM

[From *The Subject Fields in General Education,* A Report of the National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning, Edited by J. J. DeBoer, pp. 97–99. Copyright, 1941, by D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.]

Although the objectives of the study of foreign languages and cultures may be classified in various ways, the four major areas designated by the Educational Policies Commission, in its report on *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy,* offer a convenient pattern for the purposes of this discussion. It will be noted that the degree to which these objectives will be sought, and the methods whereby they are to be obtained, will vary according to the needs, interests and abilities of individual students. For some the program will embrace only a survey of the foreign-language field or an introduction to the literature and customs of foreign nations, whereas for others it will involve the systematic and extensive study of one or more foreign languages.

If one considers the relation of modern foreign-language study to the first of these areas or objectives, "Education for Self-Realization," it is evident that modern foreign languages offer reading in many fields of interest. They aid in more efficient speaking and writing of the mother-tongue. They are at least as conducive as any other academic subject to appreciation and enjoyment of beauty in art, music, and literature. They may considerably extend the range of one's personality by developing contacts, both intellectual and social, with members of other racial groups. To students who have linguistic and literary abilities, foreign languages and literatures offer profitable and intelligent use of leisure time. The activities suggested by this objective have sometimes been referred to as the activities of intellectual vision, and are named by the Department of Secondary School Principals as a function of the secondary school: "to begin and gradually to increase differentiated education on the evidence of capacities, attitudes, and interests demonstrated in earlier years. . . ." In this respect the study of the languages and cultures of foreign nations resembles much of the work in the physical and natural sciences, for it is work that tends to broaden the learner's horizon and to satisfy the endless questionings of intellectually alert young people about their world. In the expansion and improvement of the student's reading interests, and in increasing his comprehension of reading matter containing references to foreign countries, characters, places, events, books, and of foreign expressions appearing in current literature, work in this field contributes to the solution of one of the most disturbing problems of the modern secondary school.

It is clear that a higher degree of self-realization will usually lead to more numerous and more effective human relationships. Thus modern foreign languages attain the second objective adopted by the Educational Policies Commission, namely, "Education for Human Relationships." The acquaintance with foreign peoples through the knowledge of foreign languages and cultures will greatly help in attaining the enjoyment of a rich and varied social life. The understanding of human motivation; recognition of the effects of cultural standards and the social and physical environment upon behavior and attitudes; recognition of the contribution of our various nationality groups to our national life; first-hand acquaintance with representatives of these groups, and attitudes of appreciation and good will toward them; as well as the reading of the literature, in the original or in translation, of other nations, all illustrate direct avenues to the improvement of human relations.

The third area, "Education for Economic Efficiency," calls for the services of the teacher of modern foreign languages in such linguistic preparation as may be needed for the various vocations, and in the presentation of the national cultures, the study of which is quite as important as that of the language involved. The number of positions requiring the knowledge of one or more foreign languages is steadily increasing as international relations occupy an ever-growing place in the economic and social life of the nation. Not only in the diplomatic and consular services, the international news service, and the more specialized requirements of the scholar and the scientist, but in numerous commercial occupations involving foreign trade today, particularly in trade with South American countries, is the knowledge of one or more foreign languages indispensable. It is to be noted that such positions require real proficiency, knowledge of foreign culture and institutions, a considerable amount of more or less specialized information—in short, a preparation which cannot be acquired by short-cut methods. An early start and sustained study, especially in the matter of linguistic training, are highly desirable.

Even in the fourth area designated by the Educational Policies Commission, "Education for Civic Responsibility," the teacher of the foreign languages may make a contribution of the first importance. For a comparative study of the social, economic, and political systems of other countries—contributing as it does to the better understanding of American democracy and the civic responsibilities of an American citizen—is not merely a problem of the social studies. Such study requires not only an understanding of the political and sociological data, but a sharing in the mood and the national character traits to a sufficient extent to sense the emotional and cultural qualities responsible for the varying political and economic patterns. The responsibilities of citizenship involved in the formation of public opinion with respect to American foreign policy and our aspirations for a peaceful world order are taught as much in vicarious experiences through the reading of foreign literature in the original, or in translations, as in the purely intellectual study of international relations.

# PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES VIA UNIT ORGANIZATION

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In a democracy every boy and girl should have the chance to obtain a well-rounded education. But real equality of educational opportunity has been slow in coming. In a large number of high schools it has not yet arrived, although considerable progress is evident. In these schools the traditional curricula have not been sufficiently modified, adapted or differentiated to provide adequately for individual differences.

The principle of educational equality implies that every pupil should be given the fullest possible opportunity for the development of his individual potentialities. There is no implication that all should be treated alike. Quite the contrary. The presumption that identical treatment should be accorded to all is indeed a flagrant denial of the principle of equality. This equality of educational opportunity which democracy demands is not to be confused with *identity* of opportunity. An educational experience that will nurture one mind will be indigestible to another. Our ideal is that of equal opportunity for all the children of all the people. In practice, however, the ideal is by no means achieved.

The traditional practice of fitting boys and girls of varied interests, backgrounds, abilities, needs, and aims into a single lock-step type of foreign language course, with uniform assignments, textbooks, and standards for all has proved most unsatisfactory. In actual practice this undemocratic policy of mass instruction has resulted in serious maladjustments, high rates of mortality, mediocre achievement, and the continuous need of justifying modern foreign language instruction. Stated in more challenging language: "Secondary education is faced with the gigantic problem of providing for all who enter and persist in the school, and failure to provide offerings suited to the capacities of those who do not respond to traditional subject-matter means a large educational waste and futility, mere attendance under a kind of duress, or a wholesale ejection into the streets and alleys."

The reorganization of our modern foreign language courses according to the Unit Method proposed by Dr. Billett[1] will greatly alleviate this condition. The Unit Method, according to Billett, is "a systematic way of taking into consideration and applying with due emphasis every fundamental principle which should function in every good teaching-learning cycle." It is a general method of teaching at the secondary-school level characterized by two distinct but complementary phases: the ***unit*** and the ***unit assignment***. The significant feature of this concept of ***unit organization*** lies in the effective provision it makes for individual differences.

The unit (or learning unit), according to Billett, "is best regarded as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill to be acquired by the pupil, which, if acquired, presumably will modify his thinking or his other behavior in a desirable way." It is the teacher's immediate goal, carefully selected and explicitly stated in terms of the contemplated growth of the learner. The specific goal or unit of learning for our purpose is ***the progressive development of the ability to read Spanish prose with understanding, profit, and pleasure.*** It is always desirable to give a more general statement of the unit, something like this: "The primary objective of modern foreign language teaching in our secondary schools is the ability to read the language. Specifically, the aim is the progressive development of the ability to read Spanish prose with understanding, profit, and pleasure. The development of this skill is to be achieved by the abundant reading of Spanish prose that is interesting, mature in thought, and scientifically graded. The ability to recognize a basic vocabulary, fundamental to all general reading in Spanish, should accrue from these reading experiences."

Every unit should then be delimited or broken up into smaller units of educative growth which collectively constitute the real unit. In other words, ***the delimitation of the unit*** is a statement of the lesser learning-products which comprise the unit proper, and toward which the instruction will be specifically directed. Finally, the teacher should make a list of probable concomitant, indirect, or residual learnings. These three phases of the unit of learning, namely, the general statement of the unit, the delimitation of the unit, and the list of probable concomitant outcomes, are solely for the teacher's use.

The unit assignment (or experiential unit) is a sequence of worthwhile experiences and activities designed to promote most effectively the educative growth of the pupil. Whereas the learning unit is internal with respect to the pupil, the experiential unit is something external with which he is to interact. It is a tentative, preliminary, but systematic plan of teacher-learner experiences and activities likely to promote the realization of the goal which is the unit. It may also be described as a well-planned series of problem-solving situations, through interaction with which it is hoped the learner will achieve some measure of educative growth. The unit assignment is an extremely vital phase of unit organization because Billett states that "no provision now being made in the secondary school for individual differences offers greater promise than the unit assignment."

The unit assignment comprises two complementary (organically developed) sequences: a sequence of *suggested core-experiences* and a sequence of *optional related activities,* both of which should be made sufficiently flexible to provide adequately for individual differences.

The suggested core-experiences constitute situations, problems, or activities to most of which all the pupils, according to their varied abilities, aims, needs, or interests, will be expected to react in some way or other; that is to say, these may be considered "a common core of educative growth for all pupils." Provision for individual differences among pupils in connection with this common core implies that each pupil will have the opportunity to achieve these learning products commensurate with his potentialities.

The core-experiences of the psychologically-organized modern foreign language course should consist of scientifically graded readings. There are ample graded reading texts in Spanish of every literary type and dealing with subjects of interest to secondary-school adolescents. There should be in every Spanish class at least one copy of each of these texts in order to provide for individual differences in reading interests. In this way pupils are given the opportunity to develop wider reading interests and to follow their own preferences chiefly rather than a rigid prescribed program. It has been found that such a reading program not only arouses a more lively interest in reading, but also often results in a greater increase in reading ability. Dr. Billett echoes the same observation when he states that "to have such a classroom library is to be able to provide for individual differences in both qualitative and quantitative ways."

The optional related activities comprise all kinds of activities, such as projects, problems, and contracts planned to enrich, both horizontally and vertically, the individual pupil's growth, which all pupils are expected to achieve in some measure from the suggested core-experiences. These "supplementary lateral excursions into learning" make provision for individual differences by being correlated with the pupil's other school subjects, with his extra-curricular activities, and with his out-of-school avocational interests. In the preparation of these optional related activities there should be some that are specifically designed to promote the development of the concomitant outcomes, such as meanings, insights, and resultant ideals, attitudes, and appreciations. Every modern foreign language course in the high school, organized according to the Unit

Method, has great possibilities for the development of activities in which individual pupils may find intrinsic avocational pursuits.

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## NOTES

1. Billett, Roy O., *Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching—With Emphasis on the Unit Method,* Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND TRENDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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[From *H,* XXVIII, 3, Aug. 1945, 323–329.]

## I

One of the educational achievements of the war period has been to confirm the recognition of the value and importance of the place of foreign languages in a program of education. Public interest has been aroused in the subject, even though it must be admitted that some of the statements about new methods of instruction have been exaggerated but, to the best of my knowledge, by no one directly connected with the experiment. It would be unfortunate, however, if the advocates of the study of foreign languages were now to sit back in the complacent belief that a lasting victory has been won. They cannot relax their vigilance, for the opposition to the study of foreign languages as part of a sound liberal education has not disappeared. That opposition is greatest among those who are planning the reform of secondary education and comes paradoxically at a time when those concerned with education at the college and university level have bent their efforts to the preservation of the humanities, in which the study of foreign languages will have an assured place.

The methods of attack are curious and among them the most curious is that which looks for political motives in the minds of those who advocate a liberal education rooted in the academic subjects. In *The*

*Educational Forum* (March, 1945) Mr. A. Gordon Melvin attacks Hutchins, Stringfellow Barr, and Mark Van Doren. "To me," he writes, "these men stand for a reaction. Furthermore, this kind of reaction could be an easy ally of Fascism. These men are unwittingly "collaborating with destructive forces." Having demolished the front line of these enemies of democracy and progress, Mr. Melvin rushes forward confidently to attack all the advocates of what he calls "the backward look" for which "Lot's wife became a pillar of salt. So too will all those who in the spirit of reaction sponsor the old 'Liberal Education.' Educational reaction may not be a deliberate ally of Fascism but it lays itself open to such an alliance." Educational reaction means for Mr. Melvin "the old predetermined Mathematics-Classical Literature-Foreign Language-curriculum" which "uses force to make learners learn in the name of authority." Its advocates "must believe in discipline by the use of force" which results in "conformity on the part of students, assent, affirmation, agreement," but never in training free men.

It is unfortunate that such kind of nonsense should appear at all, but Mr. Melvin does not stand alone in making attacks of this type. When the same kind of criticism was made a few years ago by a representative of the same school of thought, I took occasion to point out in an article, "Educators See Ghosts," in *School and Society*,[1] that the most progressive democracies—the Scandinavian countries, New Zealand, and Australia—have somehow managed to be progressive and democratic despite the emphasis placed on the "old Liberal Education," which includes the study of two, three, or four foreign languages—ancient and modern—in the secondary-school program. The Fascist schools of Italy under the influence of Gentile and others were using activity methods of instruction. The situation becomes "curiouser and curiouser" when one recalls that in *Mein Kampf* Hitler, who, among other things, became the educational authority of Nazi Germany, attacked pre-Nazi education not only for its emphasis on intellectualism but also for its emphasis on the humanities. In an article on "Geschichte der Erziehung and Schule" which appeared in the *Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehung*,[2] the editor, Theodor Wilhelm, not only himself attacks the humanistic tradition as incompatible with Naziism but cites the leading Nazi educational authorities in support of his attack.

It might be pointed out that the great leaders in the history of the struggle for freedom had received that reactionary, authoritarian type of education which, according to the premise underlying the present attack, should have disposed them to conformity, assent, affirmation, and agreement. Most of the signatories of the Declaration of Independence seem to have defied the canons of modernistic education. So, too, many of the leaders in the social progress of England, and probably a majority of those meeting at San Francisco to make the world free, have been and are the victims of that authoritarian, disciplinary education which is so much decried. Those who seek to find a one-to-one relationship between the education that an individual has had and his later socio-political views (except, of course, under a totalitarian régime) have a hard time to prove their case. And this applies equally to those who charge that Progressive education disposes pupils to Communism.

This type of attack is based on the same kind of mirage as that which seeks to characterize the "old Liberal Education" as *static* and the attackers' own patent recipes as *dynamic*. It was the corrosive action of those who advocated an education without content as dynamic and progressive that, combining with other causes, helped to produce a situation in which the country found itself at the beginning of the war with an inadequate supply of personnel competent in mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages. The soothsayers who had decried the value of these disciplines had guessed wrong.

## II

There is, however, another type of attack which is more serious and which cannot be ignored. This attack on liberal education and academic studies comes from educators whose sincerity for the reform of secondary education cannot be doubted. Impressed with the facts that secondary education is destined in the very near future to become universal for all boys and girls up to eighteen and that the increased enrollments have already brought and will continue to bring into the high schools pupils with a far wider range of differences in social and cultural backgrounds, intelligence, and interests, the recent advocates of reform propose a curriculum which will meet the needs of all as workers and as citizens. The major blocs of the curriculum are to consist of training in work experience, leading to vocational preparation, and social studies. Other subjects, mainly academic, will be made available when and if pupils need them and even then more or less incidentally, or "in unaccustomed settings."

No one would deny either the importance or the inevitability of secondary education for all. Those, however, who are concerned with the future of academic studies and the humanities in general have not given the attention that should be given to the two reports which outline the wave of the educational future—*What the High Schools Ought to Teach* (1940), prepared by a Special Committee for the American Youth Commission, and *Education for All American Youth* (1944), issued by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. The first of these is based on the premise that the academic curriculum—English, history, languages, mathematics, and sciences—has been attended by too many failures. This, of course, is not news. T. H. Briggs, a member of the Committee, had already drawn attention in *The Great Investment* (1930) to the high percentage of failures in these subjects, and his statements were further corroborated by J. L. Tildsley in *The Mounting Waste of the American Secondary School* (1936). Some of the failures were undoubtedly due to lack of aptitude on the part of the pupils. *What the High School Ought to Teach* refers to the large number of pupils in high schools with only fourth- and fifth-grade reading ability; to this may be added a report on incompetence in simple arithmetic among New York City high-school pupils which appeared in *The New York Times* on April 17, 1945. The only conclusion drawn from the inability of pupils to read was that the prevalent high-school curriculum was unsuited to them; no effort was made to discover how or why pupils with such a handicap reached the high school.

One cause of the failures was not referred to at all—the employment of too many teachers who are required to teach subjects which they themselves had never studied. Since 1914 when a report on the high-school teachers of Kansas appeared, to the more recent report of the American Historical Association on the teaching of history, evidence of this situation has been available but ignored. In a system in which educational values have been surrendered in favor of quantitative measures of the equality of all subjects taught for the same length of time, subjects became the interchangeable parts of the curriculum; with the rapid expansion of subjects offered in the high schools of the country the status of teachers also followed suit.

In an effort to find a way out of the curriculum chaos which has developed, the report on *What the High Schools Ought to Teach* starts with the premise that "the program which may possibly have been appropriate when the pupils were few and selected does not fit at all the needs of the great majority of those now in secondary schools." There may be some truth in this, but to claim that the old program does not fit all the needs of the great majority and to propose that the major emphasis be placed on work experience and social studies is to adopt a defeatist position and to surrender all hopes that through improved preparation of teachers and more competent instruction a far larger number of pupils might profit from the study of academic subjects. For it is admitted in the report that "if devices can be found for appealing to pupils in such a way as to stimulate them to maximum endeavor, they very frequently show capacity that was covered up by lack of interest or lack of proper motivation." It is not clear what the Committee meant by "devices," but if by the term it was implied that more competent teachers are needed in our high schools than ever before, one cannot fail to agree with the suggestion.

It would have been well if the Committee had devoted more attention to this issue instead of proceeding to its "Criticism of Conventional Subjects"; English, mathematics, foreign languages, history, and natural sciences are all alleged to be sick and to stand in need either of elimination or of sterilization. The responsibility for failures is thus placed upon subjects *qua* subjects rather than on incompetent instruction and faulty distribution of pupils. There is also the further assumption that new subjects will be better taught than the old. Here only the strictures on foreign languages can be given:

> Instruction in foreign languages is another topic on which it is very difficult to secure agreement between specialists in these languages and advocates of general education. Teachers of foreign languages make many claims for their subjects. They say that no young person ever has any clear idea of the structure of language until he has studied some language other than his vernacular. Pupils need to understand the languages of other nations, it is said, in order to gain a sympathetic understanding of strange cultures. If these statements and other claims of language teachers are accepted, and foreign languages continue to consume the time that has been traditionally given to them in the past, it will be very difficult to build up a program of general education to include the new courses that have been recommended as desirable.
>
> Here again, certain recent experiments seem to show the way out of the situation. Why not serve directly, through a course in general language, the chief needs that are presented by advocates of foreign languages, without attempting to secure that slender and doubtful degree of mastery that is the only outcome for most pupils of the present courses in these languages? [3]

Teachers of foreign languages may derive some comfort from the fact that they have not presented the only targets at which the Committee has fired its blast. It is not necessary here to discuss the curriculum recommended by the Committee to make the general populace "intelligent about the issues that confront communities and the nation." The Committee published its report in 1940, before the "functional" need of the subjects so severely criticized was put to the pragmatic test. The report of the Educational Policies Commission on *Education for All American Youth* appeared in 1944 and information about the shortages of competent personnel in mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages was available while the report was being prepared. The report is virtually an expansion to 421 pages of the general thesis of the thirty-six-page report on *What the High Schools Ought to Teach*. Despite the information already available and a gathering movement to ensure the survival of the humanities in colleges and universities, the statement is made in the opening chapter on "The History That Should Not Happen" that the familiar pre-war pattern of education "was shattered beyond repair; and that the end of the war was the end of an epoch to which there could be no return, in education or in any other aspect of life."

The pre-war pattern having disappeared, the vacuum is to be filled with instruction to prepare for occupations, for civic competence, and for personal development. Two courses—one for a rural and the other for an urban high school and community institute or two-year continuation beyond the high school—are offered as illustrations. The conventional subjects—science, mathematics, social studies, English, or foreign language preparatory to advanced study in college or university, as well as education for agricultural, mechanical, commercial, and homemaking occupations—are included in the bloc devoted to preparation for occupations in both rural and urban high schools. They will appear in "unaccustomed settings" and as the need for them arises with opportunities for further study in the time (about one hundred fifty minutes out of a twelve-hundred-minute week program) to be devoted to individual interests. "A student may have a keen desire to study chemistry, literature, or a foreign language, quite apart from the needs in his prospective vocation. If so, he is free to pursue this interest in his elective period," or in summer courses which high schools will offer.

Lest it be assumed that inadequate attention is devoted to foreign languages, it must be pointed out that provision is made for their study in the rural community institute or junior college through "correspondence courses from the extension divisions of universities and colleges."

> In the teaching of foreign languages, the school is making effective use of methods developed during the war, employing correspondence courses accompanied by phonograph recordings. Indeed, this method makes possible a wider choice of languages than was found in even the largest high schools, when class instruction was the only method used. This year, one teacher of languages is able to supervise students who are studying Russian, Spanish, French, Italian, German, and Latin.

It is difficult to account for the discrimination in the choice of languages studied, but one cannot but admire the ability of the *one* teacher to supervise this modest list. Techniques have a wonderful way of captivating the imagination!

There is thus presented in the two reports a challenge which has up to the present been ignored by those who have concerned themselves with the survival and preservation of the humanities and liberal education at the college level. The gap which has been developing between the high school and college is likely to grow wider, if the recommendations of the report are put into practice. The fruits of "incidental instruction" and "instruction in unaccustomed settings" are known; a further extension of this principle of vagueness may in time lead to the complete disappearance of the academic studies from the high-school curriculum. When that happens the colleges will have to introduce preparatory courses in all subjects. Perhaps that day is not so remote even now. The faculty of Johns Hopkins University, according to the latest report of President Isaiah Bowman, in considering the future of the undergraduate college of the University, has recommended that entering students be required to come to the University a month before the opening of the academic year. That month is to be devoted to repairing such deficiencies as may be discovered by placement tests in order to reduce the number of failures in the freshman year, chiefly in English and mathematics but also in other subjects—none of which have presumably been taught incidentally and in unaccustomed settings.

There is available a vast amount of literature on individual differences in ability and aptitudes. Equality of educational opportunity implies the provision of a course of education by which a pupil can best profit. A certain amount of "common learnings," recommended by the Educational Policies Commission, may be desirable, but it would be unjust to deprive pupils who have a keen desire and the requisite ability to pursue academic studies of the opportunity of doing so intensively and not in a brief elective period. It is somewhat paradoxical that the Educational Policies Commission, which has assumed a leading position in the campaign for education for peace and international understanding, should have failed to appreciate the importance for this end of the place of foreign language as the basis for international understanding and cooperation.

From both the educational and the international point of view the President of the Rockefeller Foundation in *A Review for 1944* presents the case for the study of languages in unequivocal terms. In a section of the *Review* entitled "Opening Our Own Windows" Raymond B. Fosdick writes:

> We need, of course, to make sure that our own doors and windows here at home are open. For while the war did not seal us off as completely as France and Poland and Norway were sealed off, it nevertheless found us unprepared in terms of language and knowledge and understanding to live intelligently with our neighbors in the closely knit world of the twentieth century. There has been a parochialism about America and her attitude toward other nations which only now is beginning to break down.
>
> The matter of language is a case in point.

Scientists are already beginning to be concerned about the selection and education of high-school pupils who show promise of leadership in science and technology. Those who are concerned with the preservation of the humanities as essential for the enrichment of American culture have an equal obligation to see to it that pupils who show ability in the field of the humanities, in which the study of languages has an important place, are given the opportunity to lay the foundation for such study in the secondary school. For, to quote from an editorial in *The New York Times,* April 20, 1945:

> A nation's progress and our future security rest on a double foundation: intelligent, vocationally-trained citizenry and wise leadership that has both a scientific and cultural background.

## NOTES

1. May 13, 1939.
2. Vol. x (1941), 18 ff.
3. *What the High Schools Ought to Teach,* p. 29.

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# FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE HARVARD REPORT

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[From *HP,* XXVII, 10, Dec. 1945, 25–27.]

Coming as it does at the beginning of a crucial period, the Harvard Report is being read and studied with a keenness of interest which few educational documents in recent years have enjoyed. Its gracious and polished style makes it pleasant reading. In fact, it is rather a literary essay than a report, in the accepted sense, on a technical subject.

The first two chapters present an interesting and clear-sighted analysis of the expansion of the high school and college during the last seventy years, and offer penetrating comments on several of the shortcomings of our huge educational structure. They deplore the "divisive" forces inherent in the multiplicity of courses in the modern high school whose curriculum has been "widened to include a thousand watered-down versions" of academic subjects. They feel that despite all recent adaptations and adjustments very little has been done to provide a suitable education for the slow pupil.

The ideals they set up for the school are noble ones; they are feasible; they are acceptable. No one can object to the statement that education aims at *"the good man," "the man who possesses an inner integration, poise and firmness,"* the man who is *"universal in his motives and sympathies."* The student is to be taught *"to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values."* They conclude *"that the aim of education should be to prepare an individual to become an expert both in some particular vocation or art and in the general art of the free man, and the citizen."*

And what do the Harvard savants suggest for the attainment of their ideal?

Mirabile dictu, *"a core of common studies strengthened by more advanced work,"* the said core to consist of three units of English, three of science and mathematics and two of social studies.

The language teacher who has read with hearty approval the fine statements about humanistic values expects the Committee to recommend a rich cultural program. What is his dismay to find that foreign languages are not even mentioned in the core, but are considered merely an adjunct to English. The "prime function" of language teaching *"is not to give a practical command of the new language; on the contrary, it is to illuminate English!"*

Equally appalling are some other startling statements: The aim of foreign language teaching *"is not to give a practical command of the new language," but to improve one's English. "There is no better practice in reading or in writing English than translation."* Those who have need of a foreign language for research can get it in intensive summer courses (still to be organized). German and Spanish are "largely" tool subjects, German being unique for sciences, Spanish for South American trade. French and Latin are desirable because they "illuminate" English syntax, for which reason they should be taught in the seventh and eighth grades. The chief difficulty in teaching language is to get the student to appreciate the meaningness of foreign words and idioms in their relationship to English (a "Copernican step"). *Only a "comparatively few," who can profit by it, should go on with language study.* Two other languages should be taught, ancient Greek and modern Russian—the latter "in the last years of (high) school." Finally, as a possible solution, experimentation with "general language" is recommended. *"If it survives it may well become the core of English teaching in the first year of high school."*

With all due respect to the scholarship, good-will and lofty ideas of the members of the Committee, one cannot help expressing amazement at their evident lack of acquaintance with a number of basic practical aspects of a number of educational areas. Confining oneself to the section on foreign languages, a reader is compelled to inquire whether its author consulted the Modern Language Study, scanned the more recent writings of some of our language specialists, or examined the syllabi of any of our larger school systems. After all, before one can make effective recommendations for any activity, one must carefully evaluate its philosophy, objectives, procedures, and results. This has not been done in the case of foreign languages. The very names of the languages generally taught have not been enumerated. No reason is given for the complete omission of Italian and Portuguese.

The several peculiar ideas of the Committee—foreign languages are studied to illuminate the vernacular; general language should become the core of first year English; German and Spanish are largely tools; comparatively few should "press on to a firm and fruitful grasp of language"; teaching for tool use and for cultural ends are severely distinct —are all stated dogmatically without reference to contemporary conditions. The acceptance of the reading aim, the experimentation with general language, the evaluation of the A.S.T.P., the large foreign-speaking communities in metropolitan areas, the language demands of the war (OWI, censorship, UNRRA, administration, etc.), the Good Neighbor Policy and the expansion of American commercial relations on a global scale, these significant factors are not discussed.

What makes this section of seven pages on "Foreign Language" so annoying is that *it offers little because of a lack of information.* It is not hostile; it is not particularly critical. It provides a place of dignity for foreign language study. But it is so ineffective and vague.

If we are ever to build up an intelligent, informed citizenry, "universal in its motives and sympathies," we shall have to extend and intensify our language studies, providing a rich humanistic education not for comparatively few, but for all normal students. And the aim of that humanistic education must be an insight into other cultures—an insight which can be acquired only by foreign language study.

# TOWARD MORE BROADLY BASED MODERN-LANGUAGE CURRICULA

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[From *SS*, Vol. 62, No. 1614, Dec. 1, 1945, 345–347.]

It has been the function of universities from the beginnings of their history to train leaders in those professions that society considers essential to its survival on the highest possible level of human welfare. In striving to fulfill this function, they have drawn heavily upon the resources of the language arts, both ancient and modern. During the centuries when Plato and Aristotle were considered the western world's ultimate authorities on science, ethics, and political philosophy, a knowledge of Greek was considered indispensable to scholarly leadership in the professions. Similarly, when Rome assumed world leadership in the field of jurisprudence, education, and religious philosophy, Latin became an important tool of authoritative professional scholarship. The emergence of France and of the Germanic states as world leaders in science, philosophy, literature, education, and military strategy during the 18th and 19th centuries served to make at least a knowledge of French and German an indispensable prerequisite to effective leadership in the professions.

In the United States, however, colleges and universities have expanded their function beyond the scope of the original university as a corporation of distinctly graduate professional schools—the more usual conception of higher education still prevailing in many countries of continental Europe. They have taken over much of the work that abroad has traditionally been assumed to belong either to such combined terminal and preparatory institutions as the *Gymnasium* or *lycée* or to such finishing schools as at one time existed in this country in the form of the academy and "female seminary." In assuming the latter function, the undergraduate division has drawn heavily upon the liberal arts—the program of education becoming to a freeman who could be counted upon to use his freedom intelligently as a responsible member of a potentially influential class in society. In America, this function of the undergraduate division became increasingly important as the number of voting citizens acquired the economic security and corresponding leisure that are required of people who are to take a genuine interest in the refinements of living. At this point, a reading knowledge of the ancient and modern languages as keys to the *belles lettres* of foreign lands and historic civilizations was increasingly stressed as essential to the making of a scholarly gentleman whose manners, tastes, and intellectual interests would be as nearly identical as possible with those of the aristocracy of Europe. In the service of this aim, other modern languages, especially Spanish and Italian, were eventually admitted.

As the result of the global changes in the social and political structure of human society that two world wars have helped to accentuate, the undergraduate divisions of nearly all colleges and universities enroll a very substantial number of young men and women whose life destinations are neither membership in a privileged social aristocracy nor in any of the four traditional professions of law, medicine, theology, and engineering. They include many men and women who look forward to vocations as teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, as social workers, as businessmen, as foreign commercial and cultural representatives, as journalists, as musicians, as personnel managers, or as participants in the thousand or more vocations that modern developments in the field of the arts and sciences have opened to career people.

For this very substantial and increasing number of young men and women that are coming to our college and university campuses, now that hostilities have ended, the prewar foreign-language curriculum will at times seem both inadequate and irrelevant. Provided the means are not too circuitous, most of them, however, will appreciate the desirability of being able to read current materials of significance to their life-career interests that appear in reputable foreign magazines and books. To all but foreign-language majors, the reading objective is likely to seem valid and profitable only to the extent to which it is approached through the use of timely materials not already available in far better translation than they could ever hope to make for themselves unless they devoted most of their time in school to language study.[1] For most of these young men and women, foreign-language work will seem only a very academic requirement or hurdle, if language abilities are stressed exclusively as keys to the *past* rather than as keys to the present and future as revealed in reputable current literature.[2]

Among the substantial majority of students whose formal schooling will end with the bachelor's or master's degrees the modern languages will enjoy importance not so much as instruments of historical research, but as practical means for keeping abreast of the times in their chosen fields of work or as instruments of oral communication in vocational or social life. Since success in their vocations will often depend primarily upon their effectiveness in dealing with human beings over a far wider geographical area than ever before in history, it is natural that ability to understand and even speak a foreign language will be of genuine interest. Many young men and women will already know from personal experience that the most distant point on the globe is now only sixty hours away from their own communities by fast airplane. From practical experience, many of them will also know that radio is now able to bring into the average home all the major and minor languages of the world. In such circumstances, an undergraduate program in foreign languages designed primarily to lay a foundation for literary or historical research on the professional level is not likely to receive the support that is essential to continued success.

A broadly based program that affords opportunities to learn to read, write, understand, and speak a foreign language for present-day real-life purposes is almost indispensable if work in this field is to receive the recognition it deserves or to be recommended for any considerable number of students. Obviously, this does not mean that a uniform minimal standard of performance in all four of these abilities need be laid down for each and every individual. Ability to read a foreign language comprehendingly in a chosen field of cultural or professional interest may often prove sufficient to satisfy the educational needs and ambitions of certain students. In place of uniform unit requirements, might it not be preferable to think in terms of graduated scopes or levels of performance and to rely more upon individual counseling and guidance in the choice of particular offerings than upon blanket prescriptions of the kind sometimes found in university catalogues? [3]

The responsibility of meeting the scope of performance defined as desirable might well rest with the student himself, and credit granted only to the extent that he has achieved a command of the language for some useful life purpose. At the present time it is almost impossible to tell from grades or units exactly what he can actually do with the language in some realistic life situation. For the most part, our traditional tests and methods of evaluation have little meaning outside the foreign-language departments that construct and administer them. Might not a scaling of foreign-language achievement on a ladder basis (in terms of scope and quality of performance in reading, writing, or speaking) and the assignment of units of credit in terms of the ability level achieved easily contribute to a major improvement in foreign-language teaching and serve greatly to motivate those students who now merely "take" foreign languages in satisfaction of a unit requirement without necessarily making conscious efforts to attain a satisfying and educationally profitable goal? [4]

In the process of achieving a command of the language adequate to serve vocational needs or cultural life interests, some students will undoubtedly develop the ambition to become advanced scholars in the literature or linguistic aspects of the foreign language itself. At the upper-division and graduate levels these individuals will have the opportunity to begin work of a more specialized character, very much as at present, with more adequate differentiation for those who are planning to teach in high schools and junior colleges rather than to occupy chairs of literature and language on a university faculty. Perhaps university foreign-language staffs can profitably begin to think in terms of a distinction between research degrees and practitioner's degrees in language in the same way that departments of medicine and education frequently distinguish between major competence in research and major competence in applying the findings of research in vocational life. The degree of Doctor of Modern Languages offered by Middlebury College, Vermont, would seem to mark an important initial step in this direction.

These observations obviously imply a need for readjustments in certain phases of the organization and administration of postwar offerings in modern foreign languages at the college and university level. Few of these readjustments can be realized except through careful planning and gradual implementation over a considerable number of years. At the same time, are not all of them possible of realization in at least some satisfying degree? Some of them will, perhaps, be difficult to resist if the modern foreign languages are to experience the satisfaction of contributing services of demonstrable importance to more than a very select group of potential leaders in privileged social circles or to an equally small and select group of potential grammarians, philologists, or professors of literature. In a word, college modern-language departments will be increasingly called upon to provide more broadly based curricula designed to serve the many vocations and life interests of a democratic society instead of subordinating them to those select professions and intellectual interests which heretofore have worn the inherited robes of aristocracy.[5] The aristocratically European orientation (whose operating principle is exclusiveness) has never been too well adjusted to the soil and climate of American life and culture. In part, does it not account for the many maladjustments that foreign-language study has experienced over decades, especially wherever public secondary education has been forced to implement it under pressure of college-entrance examinations and requirements? It is a viewpoint that is likely to become even more difficult to maintain in the future, for the demonstrated inability of the narrowly based humanistic curricula of prewar Europe to develop generations of citizens capable of foreseeing and solving crucial national and international problems on a decent and humane basis has caused this study to fall into eclipse in the very countries that at one time served as illustrious models to its advocates in American higher education.[6]

## NOTES

1. Although the number of translations of important works is larger in almost every foreign language now taught in school than most non-majors are likely to have time to read in a year course, the need of additional and better translations suggests the desirability of capitalizing the special interests and abilities of gifted advanced students in making translations. In the case of graduates who are planning to become *teachers* of literature and language rather than specialists in literary and linguistic *research,* a translation of an important play, novel, or collection of essays, short stories, or poems, might well be considered acceptable for the master's thesis or doctor's dissertation. If high-school students of German, French, and Spanish in the C. K. McClatchy High School, Sacramento, can translate, annotate, and publish manuscripts of historical import formerly available only in the Bancroft Library of the University of California, then certainly at least the *flor y nata* of our college youth can be interested in "disciplining their minds" and sharpening their foreign-language skills on something of greater importance than papers whose final destination is too often the waste basket after the "grade" has been recorded in the professor's roll book. For a more detailed description of publications issued by the Nugget Press of the C. K. McClatchy High School, see "Modern Languages for Modern Schools," McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 525 pages, pp. 401–403.

2. The limitations of traditional foreign-language requirements as prerequisites to degrees in research have been surveyed by C. H. Betts and R. A. Kent, "Foreign Language Equipment of 2,325 Doctors of Philosophy," Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1929, VI + 151 pages. See also, M. V. O'Shea, "The Reading of Modern Foreign Languages," *Bulletin* of the Department of the Interior, U. S. Printing Office, 1927, 78 pages.

3. The feasibility of this proposal is confirmed in the report by Frederic D. Cheydleur, "Placement Tests in Foreign Languages at the University of Wisconsin," *Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin,* Bureau of Guidance and Records, Madison, 1943, 39 pages.

4. For concrete, practical ways and means for supplementing this conception in terms of objective, validated rating-scales and performance tests, see Walter V. Kaulfers, *Modern Language Journal,* 28: 2, pp. 136–150, February, 1944. See also footnote 3.

5. A broadening of the scope of foreign-language curricula at the college and secondary-school levels is supported by the recommendations contained in recent reports of national organizations. See Secondary Education Board, "A Report of the Conference on Modern Foreign Languages," Milton (Mass.), 1941, 32 pages; pp. 8–9, 30–31. The Commission on Trends in Education, "A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program," The Modern Language Association of America, 100 Washington Square, New York 3, New York, 1944, 34 pages. Ohio Conference on Modern Language Teaching, "Modern Language

Teaching in the Postwar Reconstruction of Education." (James B. Tharp, Ed.) College of Education, Ohio State University, 1943, 56 pages.

6. For descriptions of promising new-type foreign-language programs in American colleges and universities, see Walter V. Kaulfers, "Modern Languages for Modern Schools," McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1942, 525 pages; pp. 284–286, 290–294, 444, 450–453.

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# INTEGRATION OF HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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[From *MLJ*, XXX, 8, Dec. 1946, 547–553.]

Integration may be defined as the process of becoming whole or complete by bringing together the various parts of the whole. Integration or unity is the opposite of segregation or isolation.

When this definition is applied to the school organization we are usually referring to a type of school that is not divided into many independent subject matter departments each with its own objectives that may or may not contribute directly to the general aims of the secondary school but one in which all subject matter is unified around the major purposes of youth education expressed in the objectives of the school program.

Integration of subjects has been achieved in many elementary schools by a complete reorganization of the curriculum around broad areas of living that represent the needs of the student for living in our modern world. They have been able on the elementary level to discard the traditional classification of subject matter where acquisition of knowledge and skills is an end in itself and substitute the integrated curriculum which seeks to develop not only the intellectual child but also the physical, social, vocational child, that is, the whole child, fully and completely, so that he might become a well-balanced, integrated personality.

In a school where subjects are so integrated the teachers are usually more than subject matter specialists requiring of their students mastery of skills or acquisition of knowledge only; they are interested too in the use to which such knowledge will be put; in other words, they are concerned not only with what they are teaching, but also with whom they are teaching. In fact, their chief interest is in making young people healthy, happy, self-supporting good citizens, using their subject matter to realize this goal.

Also, in a school where department barriers are being broken down and where all subjects are more or less related, because they contribute to the dominant purpose of the school, there is apt to be a lack of antagonistic competition between teachers. Instead, they plan and work together harmoniously to achieve common goals through their various subject matter.

The unified curriculum is characterized too by the type of courses offered. They are less academic and more functional in nature as their very names sometimes indicate. For example, instead of English 1, 2, or 3 we might find some such title as Basic Language, Social Language, Journalism, or in place of Spanish 1, Introduction to Spain and the Americas.

The students of a school so unified should understand better the relationship between the various fields of knowledge, and therefore they should get a better picture of life as a whole. Their experiences in and out of school should have more meaning and hence more interest for them and, as a consequence they are more likely to become better adjusted individuals.

This movement of unification of subjects started as a revolt against extreme departmentalization and preoccupation with mastery of subject matter. It had become apparent that this approach was not providing the broad, balanced perspective needed by youth for intelligent living. The teacher often lost sight of the dominant purpose of the school, so engrossed was he in the special interests of his own department. He seldom conferred with others outside his field because he saw no need for it. He left to the immature minds of his students the task of fusing into significant wholes through some sort of automatic process of assimilation the fragmentary impressions gathered from his various classes. The unified curriculum, on the other hand, helps the student to integrate his varied experiences into some kind of organic whole.

The reorganization of the whole school program around so-called centers of interest has not been done on the high school level as it has been in the elementary school where, by the way, some of the best teaching is done. The high school, as we are all too well aware, is more dominated by the college and tradition. There has been, here and there, some attempt to organize learning experiences of the high school student into patterns more significant than the conventional subject organization. But, in most cases, emphasis has been placed on correlating work within the course to take account of broader fields of relationship. This has been done in the senior high school, however, more in the fields of English and the social sciences than in any other.

But educators have shown hesitancy about integrating other subjects in the senior high school curriculum, especially the so-called tool subjects of mathematics and foreign languages where definite skills are to be acquired and which are considered college preparatory subjects. Yet, there is a real need to relate work done in the Latin, French and Spanish classes to that done in other classes and to the real purpose of the school, for often there seems to be no connection, and frequently there is none when the teacher is too concerned with pronunciation and verb drills and grammar analysis.

Indeed, the language specialists have shown little interest in this movement of integration because they feel that they must teach the language skills first and that they cannot teach the skills of reading and writing and speaking and understanding a foreign language and at the same time develop in the student attitudes, interest and appreciations that contribute to the objectives of youth education. They contend that the language skills must be mastered first and later will come the use of them for cultural or vocational purposes. In other words, form first and content afterwards. But there is no "afterwards" for the majority of students enrolled in the language classes of the high school of today. Most high schools offer only the two-year basic course even for the college preparatory student. The non-college student usually takes only one year of a language. It is impossible even with a junior high school language background and the additional maximum two years to teach mastery of all of the linguistic skills, which alone does not justify keeping foreign languages in the high-school curriculum. Recently a professor of education put the problem before the class with this question: "What value is there to the non-college student to be able to say "parlez-vous français" —"oui-oui," "non-non"? And yet there are a large number of the terminal students in the foreign language classroom who have gotten little more out of the course than the ability to use a few stock expressions.

This question now arises: Can foreign languages contribute to the objectives of secondary education from the start without much loss to their specific objectives of the ability to understand and use the language as a means of communication? In other words, is there a way in integrating, in the early stages, foreign languages with other subjects in the curriculum without sacrificing the linguistic aims that are attainable in the time allotted to them?

I say not only that they can be but that they must be if they are to justify their continued existence in the curriculum of the average high school of today where, according to the Statistical Summary of Education, 1937–38, made by the United States Office of Education, "the chances were only 1 in 7 that a high school graduate would continue his education through college," [1] and pursue his study of the language. And furthermore it has been done in an experiment conducted by the Stanford Language Arts Investigation. In this experiment foreign languages and English were unified under the broad area of expression and communication around the common objective of the ability to use and understand language as a means of communication of socially significant content through which the student develops attitudes, interests and appreciations set up by the school. That is, linguistic skills were developed through meaningful content. Form and content were one and the same.

The book written by Walter V. Kaulfers, Grayson N. Kefauver and Holland D. Roberts titled *Foreign Languages and Cultures in American Education* presents the reports of the teachers of foreign language, English and social studies who participated in the experimental programs. This was a three year curriculum project sponsored by the General Education Board and involving the participation of 151 teachers and administrators and 10,000 students in 28 schools distributed through 3 states. It aimed to establish in representative schools programs of instruction in the unified curriculum of the language arts which would encourage the development of effective curricula in the language arts.

Kaulfers says in this book that unification of any special field with the central objectives of education can be achieved in three ways:

First, "through the selection of content and learning activities that will directly or indirectly supplement or reinforce the ultimate unifying objectives in terms of different avenues of approach." For instance, he mentions a school in Palo Alto, where English and Spanish are correlated through specific references to the contributions of the Spanish-speaking peoples to the contemporary culture in California. Emphasis is placed on Spanish expressions heard, theatre programs, magazine articles, newspapers and literature read for comprehension. This is the method of correlation and the one used by most teachers. I shall refer again to this method.

Second, "Through the fusion of relevant content from special fields." This refers to the use of units of work developed around centers of interest as a basis for classroom teaching. For instance, the title of a sample unit for an advanced French class might be *What did America do for Haiti?* In the development of this unit, the teacher and students use whatever subject matter they need to solve the problems that arise. The students would study not only the French language but they would find it necessary to read American and European history, study geography and write in English, so there would be correlation of French, English and social science.

Third, "Through the introduction of such orientation courses in special areas as will contribute both to the ultimate objectives of the curriculum and to the specific aims of the special fields." Many junior high schools already have such orientation courses in the fields of the social and physical sciences. But few senior high schools have such a course in the field of language, and it is in such a course that I am interested and to which I shall refer later after first considering the problem that exists in the language classes of our school in the city of Washington, D. C.

Our school is a business high school with a student enrollment of some 1700 or more students. This school, although it has a college preparatory department, is terminal for a majority of the students. They study typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, office practice and other business subjects along with English, some history and some mathematics for two or three years to qualify for clerical jobs in private business or in the various departments of the Government. A much smaller group goes on to college.

Now, many of these non-college students enroll in the modern language classes, some because they are curious about what is "foreign," some because they have friends or relatives that are interested in having them enroll, others for cultural or vocational reasons often given them by the guidance counselor or language teacher who wants full classes in these elective subjects. These students seldom complete the two-year basic course. They drop out for the most part at the end of a year's study! Just one year of a course designed for two years of continued study at least! What have they learned? What could they learn in a course so organized that would be worth the time spent in the class? Yet the needs of these students must be met as well as those of the ones that plan to continue the study of the language in college.

* * * * *

Very briefly, I shall relate what we have done and are doing in our school to meet the needs and interests of these students.

Instead of starting out immediately teaching the French language in the conventional manner, we devote the first week or two to a brief consideration of the language in general, its meaning, origin and development. We show how the French language began and developed from the Latin, and how later it entered the English language and influenced its growth. Then we talk about the French in the New World and connect their study of the new language with their present environment by considering French place names and French words of daily use in our language.

Then the textbook that had been in use for a number of years was ill-suited to the needs of the one-year student since he wasn't able to get very far with its long and involved lessons, so we had an alternative textbook placed on the approved list, and this book is complete in itself and can be easily covered in one year, leaving time for some extensive reading besides. Another very desirable feature about the book is that it successfully correlates French with English, art, music, literature, and history through meaningful content written in English and French, and in so doing it helps to unify the study of French with other subjects in the curriculum.

In connection with the reading material, we often visit museums, art galleries and libraries, of which there are many in the capital city, to see exhibits of French art mentioned in the text.

We have found the legations and embassies in the city always cordial to the teachers and students of foreign languages who wish to know more about the people they represent. We have always had very friendly relations with the Haitian Embassy in particular, which we visited annually before the war and for which visit we made careful preparations in French. We also invite many French-speaking people of the community to come to the school and tell us about their country.

Some of the students have found it quite interesting to exchange letters with French-speaking boys and girls living in Canada, Haiti, and France. Unfortunately the war just about eliminated this very excellent means of contact.

In addition, we use as much auditory and visual material as possible in connection with the lessons. The department has a portable victrola and a set of speaking records and a few singing ones which we use especially in connection with our pronunciation work. We keep a bulletin board for the display of material brought in by the students and teacher. Many find it interesting to keep scrapbooks into which they put their collections of stamps, menus, pictures, clippings, and French words used in English. We have a moving picture of "My Trip to Paris" taken and edited by the author for use in her French classes.

We also encourage the reading of such books as Dickens' *Tale of Two Cities,* Dumas' *Three Musketeers* and *The Count of Monte Cristo,* and Hugo's *Les Misérables.*

And each year we dramatize some of the French holiday festivals for the benefit of the whole school. For instance, at Christmas, we present a dramatization of *La Veille de Noël à Paris.* This gives an opportunity to those who like to sing, dance, and act to participate in the solemn church scene, *La Messe de Minuit,* and in the home celebration, *Le Réveillon,* the gay midnight supper.

Some of the material used in these activities is being put together in booklet form and one day we hope to be able to make it available to our non-college students in particular.

So these are some of the activities and learning experiences my students engage in. Some help them directly in the mastery of the language, others help develop interests, appreciations and attitudes that contribute directly to the aims of the school. All help to correlate French with their other experiences in and out of school and hence give more meaning and interest to their language work. I have been using, as you have noted, the first method of unification given by Kaulfers.

But I know you are wondering how I find the time to do all this and to teach thoroughly the French language. I must hasten to admit that many of these activities unfortunately do not form an integral part of the instructional program but are carried on in the Club by the few who have the time to attend. I realize that I'm still not meeting the need of most of the terminal students, for, as the course is organized now, I have to devote most of my time and energy in the classroom to teaching language skills. That is why I want now to recommend the organization of a special course (Kaulfers' 3rd method of unification).

We are now revising the foreign language curriculum of the public schools of Washington. Last year we formulated a philosophy and set up objectives. Next year we plan to recommend to the Committee the following type of basic language course for the lower division of the senior high school, designed to meet the needs of both the college and non-college students, especially of the one-year students:

A course that would survey the whole unified field of language with a special emphasis on improving the use of English through the study of the origin, development and structure of all language as a means of communication. One that would deal with such topics as, the origin and development of human speech and writing; language change, multiplication of languages into families, origin and structure of English, contribution of each language to English and to civilization, principles of word formation and derivations. All this would be taught in simple concepts on the level of high school students.

The objectives of this course in senior high school would not be, chiefly, to forecast future success in language but first, to develop a language consciousness in the student through the gradual realization that language is a universal medium of expression occurring in various forms having common origins; second to develop better citizens of the world with international sympathy and goodwill toward foreign peoples through a broader knowledge of the customs, history and traditions of the nations, and finally, to increase the understanding of English.

Such a course would be a valuable integrating agent in the curriculum since its contents would be made up of English, foreign languages, history and social sciences.

Such a course would serve, too, as an excellent orientation course for the college preparatory student and the non-college student who might continue a study of language later in school or after graduation. It would also have a high surrender value for the terminal student. And finally such a course would contribute to the aims set up both by the foreign language department and by the school for the education of its youth.

## NOTE

1. Biennial Survey of Education in the U. S., Statistical Survey of Education, 1937–38, Bulletin 1940, No. 2. Chapter 1. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education.

# 4 : AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

## CONCERNING THE SPEAKING AIM

[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1900.]

(p. 12) The practical command of a foreign language has a potential value that is at once perceived by everyone. It is felt to be desirable by multitudes who would probably care but little for the considerations presented in the preceding paragraphs of this section. The committee held, however, that in our general scheme of secondary education the ability to converse in French or German should be regarded as of subordinate importance. We by no means say that it should be ignored, or that colloquial practice may safely be neglected in teaching. . . . Here we merely express the opinion that the ability to converse should not be regarded as a thing of primary importance for its own sake, but as auxiliary to the higher ends of linguistic scholarship and literary culture.

## A REVISED LIST OF OBJECTIVES

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[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States,* N. Y. 1929, P.A.C.C. Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 104–110) When confronted by the task of formulating for modern language instruction a list of objectives that conform to the criteria proposed by the numerous writers on the subject as modified by the results of our inquiries, we are sorely embarrassed. The fundamental objectives of education as formulated by the N. E. A. Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education are, as is well known: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, ethical character.[1] We may accept this statement as in general sound without assuming the responsibility of endorsing the form in which it is expressed or of passing upon the worthiness of various ways of spending one's leisure time. With matters of health, command of fundamental processes (i.e. ability to speak, read, write in the vernacular and to cipher) and of home membership, modern language study has in general but little demonstrable connection. It has, for most people, a limited vocational value; it is, or may be, directly connected with civic education in the larger sense; it may be made to play a considerable rôle in using our leisure time profitably and agreeably and, through the contacts that modern languages render possible with the various aspects of another civilization than our own, and the consequent widening of experience, it may be fruitful for character building as well.

To the statement that access to a very considerable part of the literary, scientific, and artistic treasures of other nations may be had through translation, we can only cheerfully and gladly assent. The enormous dissemination of literature and of ideas and of information through translation, and the importance of this process for the history of all the great cultures, are facts too well established to need discussion. It is startling to speculate on what would have been the course of events in almost any notable sphere of human activity if no translations had been made and if interchange of thought had been limited only to those who read a work in the original text. It may very well be that the flavor of the original can often not be recaptured by those who do not read a work in the language of the author, but would the Greek dramatists and Shakespeare have wielded the influence that they possess, would the Bible have affected so profoundly a large part of the world, would the fiction of England and of France and of Russia, would the drama and the fiction of Scandinavia—to limit ourselves to only a very few and very obvious examples—have so greatly influenced the course of literary developments and the directions taken by human thought and human feelings if the despised translator had not rendered them accessible to a vast public that otherwise would not have known them? The case is so clear that argument is superfluous. Many translations are bad and have entirely misrepresented the originals, sometimes deliberately or because of mistaken or distorted judgments (*teste* the earlier French translations of Shakespeare), sometimes because of ignorance of the language of the original, and sometimes, alas, because of ignorance of the vernacular, but the rôle of the good translation has been and will continue to be highly commendable. It is far better to know Homer through Andrew Lang's version, or the Greek dramatists with Murray's aid, or Plato with the help of Jowett than merely to thumb them out *à coups de dictionnaire,* or not to know them at all.

In the modern field, however, literature and the sciences are in the making and the translator pants hopelessly in the rear. It is true that many of the best books and articles are promptly translated; it is also true that many very important things are not. Furthermore, we need to have access to hundreds of books and articles, and not merely to the few lonely masterpieces; we need to keep our finger on the pulse of our generation in its commonplace daily beating as well as when it throbs vigorously. This argument is applicable, to be sure, to only a limited number of persons, to those who by their capacities and their interests are likely to use their command of one or more foreign languages for such ranging or, conversely, whose language knowledge may suggest to them such pleasant ways in which to venture. It also may be asked whether those who have tasted of a language are not the most apt to seek its literature in translation. In fact it is as fallacious to assume that we must provide opportunities for the study of modern languages to the individual only when tastes have developed and situations have arisen that demand it, as to contend that all high school students should take a modern language because the need for such knowledge may one day arise. Can we do more than estimate as best we may the tastes, the capacities, the probable life career of the individual and the likelihood of his success in learning a particular subject? [2]

It has been said [3] that in order to realize contemporary secondary objectives at least five groups of subjects are necessary to cover the major modes of thought and activities involved in the experiences of adolescents: "1. The linguistic, including elementary aspects of foreign languages, but predominantly the mother tongue. 2. History and other social studies. 3. Natural sciences and elementary mathematics. 4. Practical arts. 5. Music and other fine arts." Another curriculum analyst enumerates thus the elements of a general education: [4] English, citizenship, literature (English and general), science, common mathematics, physical training and hygiene, appreciation of music and of art, and adds: "Capable and industrious and ambitious students should be permitted to widen their general training program through the taking of certain extras, such as the following: Foreign languages, advanced mathematics, history of English literature, technical music . . . and many others." This writer is definitely of the opinion that only students who belong to the high ability group or who have special aptitudes or ambitions should be enrolled for these "extras," but he also holds that all students capable of following such studies successfully should be informed of their merits and should be encouraged to include them in their school programs in accordance with their special tastes (pp. 69–71 *passim*) and, we may suppose he would add, with the opportunities offered in their schools. When he comes to consider specifically the part of foreign languages in the high school curriculum, he adds: "There is some evidence that the alien languages have a considerable rôle to play in a well-conducted American life" (p. 259), and observes quite prudently in this same connection: "Education should proceed upon the basis of the probabilities until scientific investigations have shown us the verities" (p. 260).

The opinion which underlies the statements cited, that only a limited number of the secondary school students of the country should study foreign languages, appears to find an echo in the statements of modern language teachers concerning some of the reasons why the outcome of their efforts is unsatisfactory. When asked to indicate which of a number of possible factors tended to affect unfavorably achievement in their classes, 486 of the 580 secondary teachers replying, or 84 per cent, agreed that one of these is the lack of linguistic capacity on the part of too many students. The two other causes finding favor with the next largest groups were "too many non-academic activities," 388 votes (67 per cent), and "improper classification of students, 338 votes (58 per cent), with "crowded classes" fourth, 190 votes (33 per cent). To any one accustomed to hearing teachers inveigh against the extent to which "activities" hamper school work, and against the overlarge classes that they are required to teach, the high degree of importance that their vote gives to the poor quality of students as a chief factor in their failure to attain their objectives assumes very real significance. It appears that too many of the wrong boys and girls are electing modern languages, and while the time has not yet come when we can predict with confidence that a given student will fail or succeed primarily because of lacking or of having linguistic capacity, school administrators and modern language teachers can do far more to improve the situation than is now being done.

Despite the lack of definite evidence on many important points that have been touched upon in this discussion, we may, in the light of the foregoing, regard it as established that a revision of the list of ultimate objectives first proposed by the Committee on Investigation, together with the immediate objectives implied therein, is clearly necessary in order that we may "proceed upon the basis of the probabilities." The following statement of aims is, therefore, meant to represent more nearly the realities of the situation as they now appear. Only a limited number of facts are available to support the list as it will be given. The element of hope, so prominent in most lists of objectives drawn up by teachers of subjects, is not entirely banished, and the need for experimental testing of the validity of the new list is no less great than in the case of the old. It is also evident that certain ideals and, no doubt, certain traditional judgments of what an individual needs for thinking and feeling in a mature way are not without influence in what follows. Discussion of the ways in which these objectives are to be realized through the modern language activities of the student belongs clearly to another connection.[5]

## OBJECTIVES OF FIRST TWO YEARS

### *Immediate Objectives*

Progressive Development:

1. Of the ability to read books, newspapers, and magazines in the modern language within the scope of the student's interests and intellectual powers.
2. Of such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for the reading with comprehension.
3. Of the ability to pronounce correctly, to understand and to use the language orally within the limits of class materials.
4. Of a knowledge of the foreign country, past and present, and of special interest in the life and characteristics of its people.
5. Of increased knowledge of the derivations and meanings of English words, of the principles and leading facts of English grammar and of the relationships between the foreign language and English.

### *Ultimate Objectives*

1. Ability to read the foreign language with moderate ease and with enjoyment for recreative and for vocational purposes.
2. Ability to use orally and in intelligible fashion a small stock of the foreign words, phrases and sentences.
3. An especial interest in the history, the institutions and the ideals of the foreign country, a better understanding of its contribution to civilization and a less provincial attitude toward the merits and achievements of other peoples.
4. Increased curiosity about the literature and the art of other nations and greater ability to understand and enjoy them.
5. Greater interest in the accurate use of English.
6. Increased understanding of the development and the structure of the mother tongue and of other languages.

## OBJECTIVES OF THIRD AND FOURTH YEAR

### *Immediate Objectives*

1. Further development of speed and of range of silent reading ability to a point more closely approximating attainment in the vernacular.
2. Development of an increased functional knowledge of the forms and of the syntax of the foreign language, with speaking and writing more definitely in mind as ends in themselves.
3. Increased development of the ability to pronounce, to understand, and to use the language orally.
4. Development of a larger active stock of vocabulary and idiom for use in writing and speaking.

5. An increased knowledge of the foreign country and its people and their achievements in various fields of activity.
6. A more mature knowledge of the history of the foreign language and of its various relationships with English in word meanings, in derivations and in grammar.

### *Ultimate Objectives*

1. Ability to read the foreign language with considerable ease and with enjoyment for recreative and for vocational purposes.
2. Especial interest in the foreign country and its people, considerable knowledge of its past and present and a broadening attitude toward other civilizations than our own.
3. Ability to use orally and in intelligible fashion a larger stock of foreign words, phrases and sentences.
4. Increased ability to understand and to enjoy the literature (in the original or in translation) and the art of other nations, and greater curiosity about such matters.
5. Greater interest in the accurate use of English.
6. Increased knowledge of the development and the structure of English and of other languages.
7. Ability to write the language with the aid of a dictionary and other helps.

It may be repeated in closing this part of the discussion, that the attainment of the immediate or instrumental objectives of the course is essential for any further considerable benefit to accrue. As has been suggested, it is quite possible to make a good deal of progress toward several of the more general ultimate objectives by lessons in general language, by special remedial practice in English grammar, by a reading and discussion course in English about one or more foreign countries, and by wide reading in translation of foreign works. In fact such instruction will be of great benefit to many students who do not study modern languages, and is almost certainly preferable for those who merely "take" a modern language without ever attaining a considerable degree of mastery, of reading ability at least. A fundamental obligation rests, therefore, upon teachers of modern languages, as of all other subjects, not only to fix their objectives but to ascertain whether they are being attained by most of their students. Failure by considerable numbers to reach a satisfactory point may mean that the objectives as formulated are not valid for those conditions, or that method, materials, teacher equipment, or student capacity and effort are inadequate. The foregoing list of objectives must, therefore, be regarded chiefly as providing a working basis for teaching and testing and experimentation in the classroom and in the laboratory. While as far as it now seems to be possible, the items have been formulated with the realities in mind, the evidence now available in regard to the results of classroom efforts is largely negative in character. Much of the ground-work remains to be done. More careful analyses will dictate other items or a different phraseology and may suggest other hypotheses on which to base our professional thinking.

## SUMMARIZING CONCLUSIONS

1. While the vocational need for a knowledge of modern languages is limited, the proportion of former students of these subjects who consider that their language study time in secondary school and in college was well spent, and who record that their language knowledge has been useful to them in after life, is sufficiently large to give encouragement to the advocates of modern language teaching in public secondary schools and in colleges. At the same time, however, the testimony of a number of these persons and of various professional groups in regard to the usableness of their knowledge of the languages they have studied makes it evident that modern language courses should yield a higher degree of ability to use the languages than is now generally the case.

2. The existing variableness in the scholastic point and the age at which a modern language is begun in junior high school in almost any year of regular and senior high schools and in college, and the almost total lack of experimental data in regard to the attainment under these varying conditions, makes it practically impossible to formulate definite recommendations regarding the optimum point of beginning and the minimum length of a useful course. Figures given elsewhere, however, make it clear that two years is at present the maximum period of study for a very large majority of secondary students in the United States, and that in schools enrolling about 20 per cent of modern language students instruction in the subject is limited to two years. Consequently whatever results of modern language study are valuable for general educative purposes and for specific usefulness in after life must, under present conditions, be attained by most students within this period of time.

3. It is generally accepted as a fact that the desirable results of foreign language study are cumulative in character and, other things being equal, bear a close relationship in quality to continuance in the subject through a period of time. It is highly to be desired, therefore, (1) that the question of continuance in the subject be studied in schools and in school systems from various points of view; and (2) that more serious efforts be made to evaluate achievement under ordinary and under experimental conditions, particularly with regard to what usable and durable

language abilities are developed and can be developed in a given period. This is all the more necessary (1) because only a minority of the selected teachers consulted were of the opinion that a two-year course is long enough to enable as many as 50 per cent of their pupils to develop the ability to read and to write the language—and a still smaller minority in the case of ability to speak; and (2) because the scores made on the American Council tests in French, German, and Spanish indicate that at least 50 per cent of the two-year group and at least 30 per cent of the three-year group cannot use the foreign language for reading and for writing with even a moderate degree of ease.

4. Teachers in general appear to have less confidence that their pupils realize the instrumental aims (reading, writing, speaking, understanding the spoken word) than that they attain other and less direct objectives, such as improvement in English, the development of literary and artistic appreciation, of habits of sustained effort and the like. There is evidence that the attainment of some of this group of objectives is favored in a superior degree by modern language study; in other cases either no evidence is available or what we have is difficult to interpret with confidence. While a similar uncertainty in regard to the attainment of many ultimate objectives prevails in all fields, it is the part of wisdom in modern languages to narrow the list of objectives to those items that may be directly connected with definite classroom activities, and to assume that few or no desirable results can usually be attained unless, deliberately or unwittingly, the teacher and the class engage in activities that contribute to their achievement.

It is, furthermore, not unlikely that the prevalent complaint of teachers that they have an overlarge proportion of students who lack "linguistic ability" is to be explained in part by their failure to limit their aims to the kind of abilities that can be generally developed and to the kind of knowledge that can be mastered in the time allotted to modern languages in the programs of most secondary school students.

## NOTES

1. See *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education,* Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1918, p. 14.

2. Cf. T. H. Briggs, *Curriculum Problems,* p. 46. Cf. also the citation in C. H. Judd in *Third Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence,* p. 382: "The modern school assumes that the pupil is to be introduced to all of the intellectual arts and to all the practical skills which he is fitted by natural ability to take on. The goal of education is thus set in terms of a complete and broad education."

3. J. A. Clement, *Principles and Practices of Secondary School Education.* Century Co., 1925, p. 358.

4. Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*, p. 69.

5. Compare for a recent statement the report of the Sub-Committee on French to the Committee on Standards for use in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula, *North Central Association Quarterly*, I (1927), 467–482.

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# IS THE COLEMAN REPORT JUSTIFIED IN ITS RESTATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES FOR MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY?

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[From *FR*, III, 6, May 1930, 397–415.]

The Modern Language Study has left us confronted with a most curious situation. It has given us a series of reports which certainly throw much light upon our problems as modern language teachers and several studies of undoubted value, but we are left to wonder if it has really given us a final report.

It is true we have the report of the Committee on Investigation as published by Mr. Algernon Coleman under the title: "The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States." Although the foreword of this report is signed "The Modern Foreign Language Study," we are told in this foreword that this report was organized and written by Professor Coleman and its conclusions reached with the advice and the consent of the Committee on Investigation consisting of Professors Coleman, Henmon, Purin, Wheeler, and the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and Secretary of the Study. But we learn through a footnote (p. 170) that because of the length of the manuscript of this report (299 pages) it was impossible to submit copies to the 20 members of the Committee on Direction and Control, which made up the Modern Language Study proper, though copies of the Summarizing Conclusions of Part II (a page and a half) were sent to each member and criticisms invited.

Now these summarizing conclusions are exactly three in number. The first has to do with the value of word and idiom counts, the second calls attention to the fact that the realia and cultural elements are not as great in our texts as we sometimes take for granted. These are evidently innocuous enough. We have all believed in using as much realia as possible outside of the texts read, and even here the Coleman Report remains far short of stating what might be done to get cultural values out of our reading texts. As for word and idiom frequency, no doubt we have all long wanted to know more about them. The present writer for one suggested such studies in an article some twenty years ago, and we should be grateful that the word counts of the Study are now at hand, though we may regret that they are based wholly on written frequency, which should make us cautious about taking them at their face value. It is entirely possible to write a novel for instance without using common words as crayon, soulier, horloge, grand-père, etc. As a matter of fact, these words are listed as 3435, 1738, 2436, 2716 respectively in Cheydleur's list of 6028 words while soixante-dix, zéro, télégraphier, vitrine, pharmacie, loyer are among the last hundred mentioned.

But, on the whole, no one could take exception to the first two recommendations of the Coleman Report. They are implicit or even exceeded in much of the literature already available on the teaching of modern languages.

But all the reports and inquiries of the Report really converge on the third conclusion, and this conclusion is "that classroom effort during the first two years should center primarily on developing the ability to understand the foreign language readily through the eye and through the ear, that the goal must be to read the foreign language directly (as in the case of the vernacular) and that to attain this goal more reading must be done and all other types of class exercise must converge toward that end."

As opposed to the first two, it is clear that this third conclusion does not lack originality, so much that Mr. Coleman grants that the vast majority of modern language teachers are against it. Why should the Modern Language Study thus run counter to the experience of modern language teachers? The answer is that it did not want to. As mentioned above, we are told that the Committees on Direction and Control had no chance to read the report on which this conclusion is based. We are further told that three members of the Committee on Direction and Control, Professor Hohlfeld, Dr. de Sauzé and Mr. Roux, objected to this conclusion, stating that, in their opinion, "the unsatisfactory results which obtain are generally due to causes but little, if at all, remediable by increasing the ground that is to be covered. In cases where even a limited amount of work is inadequately done—and they are the ones that bring down the general average—a considerable increase in reading requirements, even though this be offset by lessening the time spent on other exercises and by devoting more time to the actual practice in reading, is likely to do more harm than good, and may even prove a step backward in the direction of reading by translation."

Moreover, since the publication of the Coleman Report, Dr. William R. Price, another member of the Committee on Direction and Control, has written in violent opposition to this third conclusion of the Study and has told us moreover, "that the members of the Committee on Direction and Control engaged in secondary school work were unanimously opposed to this pronouncement."

Here then is the situation referred to above: Where is the final report of the Modern Foreign Language Study? Professor Coleman's report has evidently no right to be so considered. And evidently, the situation is not merely curious but dangerous, since the Coleman Report, in spite of its lack of general endorsement by the members of the Committee on Direction and Control, who really make up the Study, is being taken by all educators as somehow the final report of the Study. Unless Mr. Coleman and his associates of the Investigating Committee, incidentally not one of whom is a secondary school man, know more about language teaching that the vast majority of the modern language teachers of the country and than the majority of the Committee on Direction and Control of the Study, then the cause of Modern Language Teaching in the United States is being done incalculable harm, because as Dr. Price pointed out, it is going counter to the heartbreaking classroom experience of twenty or thirty years, and it might be added, against a fifty year old evolution in modern language teaching.

Have then the investigations of Professor Coleman and his associates justified them in thus running counter to the opinion of the majority of their colleagues on the Study and to the vast majority of teachers throughout the country?

Now, as Dr. Price reminds us, Professor Coleman has expressed the hope that this report be subjected to a critical but impartial examination from many angles. I happened to be asked to make such a critical examination by the Boston Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of French, and I have since been asked from many quarters to publish my conclusions. I believe that I can claim to have been in the most impartial attitude in making this examination, in fact I am conscious of having started with a feeling of admiration for the amount of work done by the Study. I am sorry to say, however, that, much against my wish, I have come to feel that the third conclusion of the Coleman Report, the one conclusion that matters, is absolutely not deducible from the evidence presented, and that there is other evidence available that this conclusion is fundamentally unsound and hence that it may be exceedingly mischievous. I shall try to establish this objectively and as briefly as possible.

The Coleman Report is divided into four parts and the first deals with "the Objectives of Modern Language Instruction." At once, one rubs one's eyes for fear of not having read aright. But no, a questionnaire was actually sent, we are told, to 465 secondary school teachers to ascertain how far and how soon their pupils reached sixteen objectives of which the first few are: a) the ability to read the foreign language with ease and enjoyment, b) to communicate with natives of the country whose language has been studied, c) to communicate in writing with the same.

And we are shown, among numerous other figures, that 18 teachers said that 5% of their pupils learnt to read in one year and that 3 said 100% did, that 9 said that 50% learnt to communicate orally with natives in one year and that 20 said 90% could in 2 years, that 6 said that 50% learnt to communicate in writing in 1 year, and 43 said that 80% learnt to do so in 2 years.

These are only a few of the figures recorded, but we have here evidently terms insufficiently defined. Some of the above teachers may well have interpreted the words to mean "within the limits of the material studied," while others took them to mean more, as they apparently did. These figures are consequently so unreliable that no deductions can be drawn from them.

Next, the Wheeler statistics on enrollment are utilized to show that in any case there is very little chance to attain objectives, as the vast majority of pupils study a modern language only two years.

Finally, on the basis of the Wood and Cheydleur studies we are presented statistical evidence which we are told (p. 90) shows that "at least half the high school students completing two years of a modern language do not attain the power to read or to write with sufficient ease and rapidity to make it probable that they have reached or that they will reach the point of using these abilities for any purpose of their own."

Now these studies of Wood and Cheydleur do not tell us anything about the initial capacities, the intelligence, the industry, the interests of the pupils examined or about the outside interferences, the class conditions, the method, the teacher capacity affecting them, though it was realized, as we are told in a note (p. 8) of the Wood Report, that "in reviewing the data of the survey of New York children, we cannot escape the suspicion that only a fraction of these 25,000 youngsters really belong in foreign language classes."

May it not be permitted to doubt that under these circumstances these studies can furnish a basis for any conclusions as to the success or failure of the modern language teaching involved, much less a basis for drawing any conclusions as to methods or limiting of objectives?

For instance, in a recent study of achievement made under my direction of several hundred second year French pupils of whom more than 25% had failed the mid-year examination, it was found that in the case of one school, pupils failed because of low mentality as evidenced by the I. Q., several tests given, and their records in other subjects, while others failed because of outside interests. In another school, on the contrary, the failures were largely due to the fact that the first year work had been done under an incompetent teacher. If you made a table of the achievement in these schools and other schools like them and drew the conclusion that modern language teaching is about 30% a failure or that a certain method is wrong, you would do the cause of modern language teaching or that method an injustice on false premises. Even in two or three such simple studies, made by teachers anxious to get at the real trouble, it is very hard to disentangle all the factors of failure into teacher, pupil, method, school and home responsibilities, and yet they should be, before we can have data scientific enough to justify conclusions.

There is no evidence in the achievement statistic work quoted in this first part of the Coleman Report that such precautions were taken, and yet, at the end of this first part, before any discussion of method or other evidence, we already find what is going to be the main recommendation of the whole report: that the immediate objectives of the first two years should be the ability to read and such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for reading, with comprehension, pronunciation and oral work being relegated as the third objective.

Whether this proposition is sound we shall have occasion to examine later, but I submit that it is introduced here purely gratuitously and that this whole part of the report (107 pages) does not justify it.

Part II of the Coleman Report: "Content of the Modern Language Course," is, for some far from obvious reason, the main part of the Report, as the Summarizing Conclusions which were submitted to the "Committee on Direction and Control" appear at its close, so much that Part III: "Organization of Classes," and Part IV, "Some Considerations in regard to Method," are in the nature of anti-climaxes. For this reason I shall touch upon these before analyzing Part II.

Part III has for its aim to bring out on the basis of the Wood Report and the Henmon Report that students are misclassified, for instance, that, in Grammar achievement, 10% of third semester, 18% of fourth semester, 31% of fifth semester students may be found above the sixth semester median, while 22% of the eighth semester students may be found below it. The cumulative evidence of the Henmon report, we are told, is that 50% of the students tested are erroneously classified, and should be a semester or more above or below the classification in which they are found, and that 25% are erroneously classified by a whole year.

This Part III seems to me the soundest of the report and certainly most valuable, although it may not bring out anything new. All teachers knew about dubious and even enforced promotions and about the disconcerting way students have of forgetting in second and third year part of what they learnt in first year. But the idea that there should be throughout the course, objective, uniform and comprehensive tests which could be administered in any class and thus help to check up on the comparative progress and retention in different groups is certainly valuable and makes Part III most acceptable, although there occurs again at the end the leitmotiv of organizing the two year course primarily to develop the ability to read the modern language directly without any visible link between the data presented in this part and this conclusion.

Part IV, entitled: "Some Considerations in regard to Method," on the other hand, is the most disconcerting of the whole report because it dismisses in a most cavalier way all previous discussions as to method, including the writings of such authorities as Viëtor, Sweet, Passy, Walter, Ripman, the Committee of Twelve, Jespersen, Schweizer, Palmer, etc., because, forsooth, "their arguments are based chiefly on reason, on experience, on observation and to a limited extent, on such psychological factors as the greater interest aroused by oral work and the operation of the laws of association in the learning of a new vocabulary," and because, "until the psychological laboratory or the classroom experimentalist is prepared to supply more precise data than we now possess, little can be gained by again going over in a similar way the ground so thoroughly examined by the above mentioned writers and by others less well known." We should not be surprised, therefore, if, after some discussion of current tendencies in method, and a study of achievement in certain schools, part of the Henmon report, largely inconclusive as is admitted, we should hear again the refrain of the Coleman report, that the reading objective should become the chief objective of modern language teaching. And so we do, pages 271 and 272 giving us the most extensive explanation of the procedures advocated though it is here modestly labeled: "Hypothesis in regard to Method." It should be noted that again in this part of the report as in Part I and II there is no evidence from which this hypothesis may be drawn any more necessarily than many others, if indeed any could scientifically be deduced from such miscellaneous and undifferentiated data.

If, then, the main conclusion of the Coleman Report, already appearing in Part I, and now recognized by Professor Coleman himself as a mere tentative hypothesis, has any objective basis whatsoever, it must be found in Part II of the Report, where it occurs as the main recommendation of the three which were submitted for its approval to the Committee of Direction and Control and which, we have been told by a member of this committee, was opposed by all its members connected with secondary school work.

Let us then go back to this Part II entitled: "Content of the Modern Language Course," and see what evidence is there presented that might warrant such a revolutionary recommendation.

First of all, why is it necessary to right about face, according to the Coleman Report, and this time to right about face back toward the position from which Viëtor invited us to turn some fifty years ago?

Because the tests conducted by the Study would seem to show that 50% of second year students do not develop the ability either to read or write the foreign language with grammatical correctness or even to apply functionally the knowledge of the grammar around which the work has centered.

Well, to begin with, I believe that the basis for the pessimism of the Coleman Report as to our results might well be questioned. Without going into the question of the reliability of the tests used, it is entirely possible that more than 50% have more reading power, for instance, than can be proved by any one or any one form of written tests, at least to the extent of some 10%. The studies which I have had occasion to supervise in good schools, under excellent teachers and to which I have already referred, show that there can be easily as high as 30% of failures. But on the other hand they also show that most of these failures, some 25% are due to low intelligence or interfering factors. This would leave only about 15% attributable to the method or organization of the course, after all not a high percentage. I am therefore inclined to think that statistics that do not take into account the unavoidable failures due to low mentality or improper classification are unreliable as a basis for diagnosis of defects of procedures, nor in surveys of a large number of classes or schools, would it seem easy to fix the responsibility of the method or teacher for the remaining 15% to 20% of failures when we know that the method might vary from a grammar-translation to an extreme direct method.

However, the Report will have it that our pupils do not learn to read for comprehension as well as they might. And the only reason it chooses to stress is that, in spite of the fact that all authorities agreed long ago that a reading knowledge should be one of our aims, they all sought to reach it through translation and the intensive study of a small amount of material, a practice incidentally greatly encouraged by the Report of the Committee of Twelve.

What is the alternative? More extensive reading. That there should be more reading than we have now I have personally recommended for many years. Not that I do not consider translation good and even indispensable in its place, since translation of the more difficult passages is not only at times the only adequate test of comprehension but is also the means of getting at one of the most unquestioned values of modern language study. But straight translation, where unnecessary, has been one of the deadliest curses of the modern language course, and we have long had available psychological data pointing to the fact that, no matter how necessary translation may be in its place, extensive reading is essential for the development of genuine reading power. It has been known for at least fifty years that, in reading, the eyes move along a line of type irregularly. About 1885, J. McKeen Cattell determined that the eye sees several letters or even several words at one time. In 1906, Professor W. F. Dearborn, now of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, made the next studies of importance to reading, and determined, through photographic records of eye-movements, "that words are usually perceived as wholes and not successively by letters, and that the letters and words frequently and regularly found together tend to be formed by long association into one complex whole for which certain elements are then selected as cues." (Dearborn, The Psychology of Reading, Columbia University, Contributions to Philosophy and Psychology, Vol. 14, No. 1, 1907). These and other studies led to the conclusion that children could probably read much faster if they were led to read words as wholes and not as a succession of letters, and phrases rather than single words. Professor M. V. O'Shea in his "Linguistic Development and Education," published shortly after the Dearborn study, stated this idea as follows: "There can be no doubt that the learner ought very early to be got into the habit of handling the sentence as a unity, the word functioning merely as a factor therein."

There is then nothing new in the Coleman recommendation that there should be more extensive reading. However, the point is that the Coleman Report would go much further and subordinate all other objectives to the reading objective. So far, as we have seen, although this recommendation already appears in Part I of the Report, there has been no conclusive evidence offered in its support. Now, at last in this Part II we ought to get some. Let us examine carefully how sound it may be.

The evidence presented consists of four separate items:

1. An experiment in reading with twenty-eight second year college students by Professor Young and Professor Vander Beke at the State University of Iowa in 1925–26.

2. The experiment of Professor West in teaching Bengali children to read English.

3. An experiment in the University of Missouri High School with five sections of first year German, two being conducted with a grammar method and three with a reading for recognition method.

4. Experimental data on eye-fixations as applied to extensive reading for comprehension alone, secured by Professor G. T. Buswell of the University of Chicago.

As to the Iowa experiment, it should be noted that the subjects were college students. This alone would make it almost valueless, as we are interested mainly in the teaching of reading at a much lower age, and the maturity of the learner is a decisive factor. Moreover the Report itself admits that the experimenter insisted on testing the understanding of verb forms and reading matter through translation, a process, adds the Report, quite at variance with the procedures suggested in the present discussion. For these two reasons, if for no other, the experiment is hardly to the point.

As for the teaching of English to Bengali children, 40% learnt to read in one year and 80% in two years, not such a high percentage after all, as the Report grants that even without taking into account the unfit or slackers, 50% of ours do so in two years. Moreover, as the Report itself remarks, it is likely that in learning to read a more highly analytical language than English more attention would have to be paid to recognizing verb forms and pronouns than the West report suggests. Furthermore, as Dr. Price has already remarked in his criticism of the Coleman Report, in the case of the Bengali children motivation and environment combined to help to secure results, as is the case with foreign children who come to the United States and within six months learn English, but as is not the case under classroom conditions. So here again we have an inconclusive experiment.

The Missouri experiment looks more promising as conclusive data. The two grammar-method sections read 81 pages of Guerber's Märchen, the reading for recognition sections read 230. The sectioning had been done at random. In May all classes were tested for oral ability (pronunciation and expression) and in April they had a uniform grammar test. The result: In oral reading and ability to understand the spoken word, the extensive reading sections proved to be superior to the grammar sections. On the uniform grammar test in April, the reading sections made a better showing despite the fact that it was their first experience in translating sentences illustrating grammar. We are not told how much pronunciation work was done, but we may be sure that a good deal must have been done if the pronunciation secured was correct, so that in this respect the work cannot have differed from that of any good oral course.

What about the remarkable showing in grammar? Well, we are told that in these reading sections, grammatical facts had been given to the students by the teachers as they were encountered. If this were all that had been done it might be evidence that grammar can be taught largely in subordination to reading. But we are further told that in the spring the reading sections spent six weeks in an intensive study of grammar, taking up the material in the order in which it presented itself in the reading: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, verbs, modals, voice, subjunctive, and that word order had been studied in every lesson. This is meager information about the study of grammar as, on the very first few pages, there must have been all these parts of speech except the subjunctive, but with a six weeks intensive study of grammar apparently just before the April test, it becomes understandable that the reading sections made a good grammar showing —only it proves nothing in favor of a course organized primarily to read for comprehension. It proves that the six weeks intensive study of grammar prepare for a successful grammar test which is the very opposite of what was to be established. So here again we have an inconclusive experiment as a basis for the recommendation of the Coleman Report.

In the Buswell study the thing to be proved was that abundant contact with suitable reading matter in the foreign language accompanied by practice in recognizing the commonest grammatical phenomena essential for reading with comprehension, may be made to yield most quickly a useful reading knowledge. The Report adds: The results in the case of a first year group reported by Buswell tend to corroborate this view, but it is only fair to add that the instructor in charge, who was not personally a convert to this type of procedure, proved to his own satisfaction during the following autumn that this first year group was, in its second year, below the school standard. He attributed the deficiency especially to the lack of oral practice and to the consequent failure to study vocabulary and the commonest grammatical usage as intensively as is, in his judgment, necessary to make durable impressions. We must thank Professor Coleman for recording this result of this experiment so accurately but he must admit that as evidence for his contention it is even weaker than the first three.

As to the Buswell experiments recorded more at length in the Buswell report and consisting of photographic studies of eye-movements tending to show that the intervals between eye-fixations have a great deal to do with the development of reading power, other investigations are now at hand which must prove very enlightening.

It happens that Professor Walter F. Dearborn, as we saw a pioneer in the establishing of experimental data bearing on reading, has continued his experiments with his students and that one of them, Cassie Spencer Payne, has just published a study under the title "The Derivation of Tentative Norms for Short Exposures in Reading." (Harvard Monographs in Education Number 10, The Harvard University Press, 1930.) This study records the responses made by four hundred elementary school children to short exposures of words and phrases presented in the tachistoscope, an instrument which flashes words before the subject for not more than one-tenth of a second, insuring practically no eye-movement during the time the exposure is registering on the retina of the eye.

Here are the conclusions of this study on the point at issue:

1. It is impossible to determine exactly how much a child sees in a given fixation and since the report of what is seen depends upon so many variable factors, *any unqualified statement regarding "visual span" or "perceptual habits" is necessarily abstruse.*

2. The chief difficulty in learning to read apparently is not in the amount that can be seen at one fixation or in the method of seeing it but *in automatizing the right responses.* Slight factors may operate to cause confusion of these responses in the initial stages of learning, such as the presentation of similar words either simultaneously or the one before the other is quite learned. This confusion may result in habits of guessing whenever either of the similar words appears.

3. To say that one word is more difficult than another is the equivalent of saying that *it has not been learned so well.* The process by which a good reader in Grade 4 learns a new word may not differ necessarily from the process by which a beginner in Grade 1 learns it. The good reader has the advantages of confidence accruing from past success and of some familiarity with certain elements of the word. There appears to be no psychological reason why any child of average intelligence cannot be given the same confidence and familiarity with words and their elements *by adequate training.*

4. The amount of reading matter which can be responded to accurately appears to depend upon training and to a limited extent upon maturity. The complexity of the material as to thought involved would depend more upon the maturity of the reader for accuracy of response. Thus a superior reader in the third grade may be able to report as many letters in certain long words as an average reader in the fifth grade, and yet, from lack of experience, be unable to pronounce the word or attach any meaning to it.

Here we have evidently just about the opposite of the implications of the Buswell study and especially of the Coleman chief recommendation. The reliability of data on eye-fixations is here shown to be very questionable. But especially it appears that to learn to read does not depend primarily on eye-fixations but on the automatizing of the right responses. In other words the pupil must handle the word to get to recognize it quickly and with permanent accuracy. The more rapid understanding of words does not depend on hurried fixations, but on the contrary lengthened fixations depend on the number of words the pupils has learnt well, upon training in handling them separately, focally so much so that the maturity of the reader has considerable to do with it. All this points to the advantage of what Professor Coleman admits is the conviction of most secondary school teachers and, Dr. Price tells us, is the conviction of the secondary school members of the Committee that accurate handling of linguistic material should precede the attempt to develop rapid silent reading. In fact, Professor Dearborn has issued a specific warning on this very point. In a short article recalling much experimentation in eye-movements "Teaching Reading to Non-Readers" (The Elementary School Journal, Dec. 1929) he writes: "Oral reading requires more analysis of word forms than does silent reading. It provides a constant check for both pupils and teacher on the accuracy of word perception and thus helps to avoid the storing up in the mind of *the confused, distorted, or mutilated images of words, which remain to haunt and to terrify the mind of the non-reader.* One corollary for the teaching of reading to normal pupils may be suggested by the query whether the pendulum of school instruction in this country has not swung too far toward silent reading and toward training in the recognition of phrase and sentence wholes and whether it should not swing back to more oral reading and *to less efforts at large units of comprehension."*

It must be evident in the light of this data that the Coleman Report's main recommendation amounts to keeping modern language teachers committed to the extreme swing of the pendulum toward rapid reading at the very time when most carefully worked out experimental data accumulates to call for the abandonment of this extreme position. "I believe especially in the emphasis on oral work," wrote Professor Dearborn, in answer to a direct query on this point, "and less concern about larger intervals in eye-fixations."

As I was about to sum up this review, the April "Modern Language Journal" arrived with the letter of Professor Coleman in answer to Dr. W. R. Price's article and the comments of the editor, Professor B. Q. Morgan. At last, we learn more about the relation of the Coleman Report to the opinions of the majority of the members of the Committee of Review and Control of the Modern Language Study. Professor Fife, chairman of the Study, admits in a letter to Mr. Coleman that there was strenuous objection, at the 1927 Toronto meeting of the whole committee, to the trend of the Coleman Report. The point that Professor Fife makes is that the dissent was fully admitted in the Coleman Report, not only in the note recording the objections of Professor Hohlfeld, Dr. de Sauzé and Mr. Roux, but in the Foreword of the Coleman Report, which we now learn was written by Professor Fife himself. He recalls that he refers in this Foreword to page 127 of the Coleman Report, where it is admitted that: "The profession appears to believe that intensive study of a limited amount of reading material is the best introduction to reading. It overwhelmingly favors intensive study during the first year, while a distinct majority of secondary teachers and an important minority of college teachers take the same position for second year work." This opposition to the trend of Professor Coleman's chief recommendation, he further tells us, was reflected at the Toronto meeting. Dr. Price has already told us that it was much stronger than appeared on the surface.

What does this amount to except that the Coleman Report is really not the Report of the Study but the Report of the Committee on Investigation? Well and good, but in that case it would seem that a way should have been found to proclaim this in a prominent way. Another report should have been drafted or at least a statement issued making it so positively clear that the Coleman Report did not represent the profession's opinion and did not represent the opinion of a large proportion of the Committee on Review and Control, that there could be no possible way for the Coleman Report to go before the country with the prestige of representing the profession or even the Modern Language Study. Footnotes and explanatory letters and even Forewords cannot prevent this. Only formal signed statements can. The Report of the Committee of Twelve was clearly the Report of the Committee of Twelve. It was signed by all the members. The Coleman Report is not the Report of the Modern Foreign Language Study as a whole. It seems that something should even now be done to put the fact prominently on record.

What then more exactly is the Coleman Report? We now learn it for the first time by the letter of Professor Fife quoted in Mr. Coleman's letter to the editor of the Modern Language Journal. It seems that "when the Committee on Direction and Control delegated to the Committee on Investigation the power to carry through the inquiry, it also delegated to it the authority to report the results with the very best judgment which it could bring to bear on its findings." The Coleman Report then is in the last analysis—as he himself admits in his letter—the report of the best judgment of Professor Coleman. With all due respect to Professor Coleman's quality of judgment, this would seem an unfair responsibility, unfair to the cause of Modern Languages. Why should a nation-ally heralded Study supposed to represent the best thought of the profession as a whole thus be left to the best judgment of any one or even of a few men? Because, explains Mr. Coleman in his letter: The study was conducted as a scientific inquiry and not primarily on the basis of opinion. Hence the conclusion (about the advisability of subordinating all modern language teaching to reading for comprehension) to which Mr. Morgan and Mr. Price object, was formulated instead of adopting one which would have come from a referendum. Very well, then. The conclusion of Mr. Coleman has value only if it is a conclusion to be drawn from the evidence. In the light of the above analysis of Mr. Coleman's evidence, I respectfully submit—with all due diffidence as to the quality of my own best judgment—that this conclusion is not to be drawn from the evidence, and that moreover there was much other evidence available that Mr. Coleman did not choose to take into consideration.

When, after dismissing so casually all the work of his predecessors, he tells us, "Until the psychological laboratory or the classroom experimentalist is prepared to supply more precise data than we now possess, little can be gained by again going over in a similar way the ground that has been examined so thoroughly by the above mentioned writers and by others less well known," we may well wonder why he did not stop at least long enough to gather from psychologists in general the data available on the psychology of habit as applied to the learning process in modern languages, as this is inevitably the fundamental psychology involved. He might well have reflected that after all, the overwhelming majority of the teachers of the country and his colleagues of the Committee of Review and Control who were against his conclusion, were necessarily classroom experimentalists and that their opinion could not but be based on what must amount to an immense body of evidence, much of that evidence being precisely the functioning of the laws of habit formation, since the results of following or violating them is a matter of daily observation in the modern language classroom.

If his conclusion about the subordination of focusing on and building in intensively studied language facts to the immediate development of extensive reading, is so scientifically deduced from the evidence, how is it that he already commits himself to it at the end of the first part of his report, though there is no evidence in that part from which it may be drawn? Nor has he any evident right to object that Dr. Price has, as I have, singled out this conclusion for special consideration. We are all anxious to recognize that much valuable gathering of statistics and material was achieved by the Study and that our active colleagues on the Study have done an immense amount of work. We all appreciate with what graciousness Professor Fife must have carried out his great responsibilities, what a wealth of technique and what industry Dr. Henmon has brought to bear on our subject, and we all sympathize with Professor Coleman in his difficult task. They must all realize that in criticizing the results of their work, we are but trying to meet them on the broad level of discussion which they have established. They must then forgive us if we scrutinize earnestly the results of their labors. But Professor Coleman in particular should be forgiving. It is he on his own admission who challenged the convictions of modern language teachers throughout the country. We have been in evolution for more than fifty years toward a scientific oral method. He would have this evolution stop and raises the flag of Revolution and this flag of Revolution is not the sensible conclusions about better grading or more cultural reading, or more scientifically established words or idioms studies—we have all been working toward that and we are grateful for the acceleration the work of the Study may give to these aims—it is his conclusion about the place and the nature of reading in the modern language course. This is what the reviewers are taking up as his contribution. He may finally call it merely an hypothesis, he may hedge it about with misgivings, but, at the end of each part of his report, it appears to urge what he himself calls in his letter to Professor Morgan "a radical change in course content and class procedure."

After reading and rereading Professor Coleman's report, I fail to see, for one, that the advisability of this radical change is to be deduced from the evidence submitted, especially as this evidence narrows down to the experiments recorded in Part II. On the contrary these experiments, especially when we add to them those of Professor Walter F. Dearborn, may well strengthen the convictions of the overwhelming majority of teachers of modern languages who would oppose the Coleman Report.

In the Iowa experiment translation was actually used; in the case of the Bengali children we have stimulating conditions outside the classroom; in the Missouri experiment an intensive study of grammar was introduced; in the Buswell experiment the students were actually believed by their instructor to have suffered, in his opinion, because they had started extensive reading too soon and had lacked oral handling of vocabulary and common grammar constructions in their first year. Finally the Dearborn experiments show that the length of interval between eye-fixations is comparatively unimportant and actually explain the failure of the Buswell experiment. And furthermore, according to Professor Dearborn, the possibility of larger eye-fixation intervals is actually increased by oral work, as oral work can the most quickly automatize the right responses, secure the necessary learning of words by the student and give him that confidence, adequate training and permanent accuracy which will save him from guessing and confusion.

The overwhelming majority of modern language teachers and his secondary school colleagues on the Modern Language Study seem then to be in the right vs. Professor Coleman. Why could he not agree to fold his gonfalon of revolt and rejoin them in their evolution toward a method warranted by the evidence of the psychological laws of habit formation which the eye-fixation experiments recorded here seem but to corroborate; a method which would meet the need he suggests so legitimately of more reading only the more surely that it did not sacrifice to this one objective all the others which so many class experimentalists have found a way of attaining together with reading power?

In any case, it would be highly gratifying if the Modern Foreign Language Study could see its way to give a statement more truly expressive than the Coleman Report of the soundly established convictions of the modern language teachers of the country and apparently of its own majority.

## READING AS A CHIEF AIM

[From *Syllabus of Minima in Modern Foreign Languages*, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1931, pp. 7–8. Reprinted by permission.]

The *chief* aim shall be to develop to the point of enjoyment the ability to read the foreign language.

### *General Considerations*

The aim stated above has been formulated in recognition of actual conditions in New York City. It is a simplified aim, one that is more concrete than aims previously posited for foreign language teaching, and one that is believed to be more attainable. It is based in part upon findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study (whose work began in 1924), and in part upon the experiments and observations of the teaching and supervising staff of the New York City high schools.

This aim stresses ability to grasp readily thought expressed in the foreign language in writing or in speech. It includes the attainment of a reasonably fluent and accurate pronunciation and of an introductory knowledge of the foreign country and its people. It subordinates grammar, synthetic and analytic, to the attainment of skill in understanding the language through the eye and the ear. *Grammatical phenomena have importance only as contributing to comprehension.* Continuous and abundant reading of well-graded texts, together with continuous training of the ear, and to a lesser degree of the tongue, are the means to be employed. Reading for thought, hearing for thought, speaking to express thought, is the desideratum.

The aim is to lead the pupil into a world of new experiences and from the very beginning to develop in him a sense of pleasurable achievement.

This aim does not advocate in the slightest degree a return to the translation method, nor does it minimize the importance of training the ear and tongue. *But it does give chief importance to comprehension.* It relegates to a minor place, as being less attainable and less useful, the written expression of thought, especially during the first two years of study in the high school. It limits considerably and intentionally the translation of English into the foreign tongue.

This aim demands inevitably the development of a new technique in language training. It demands, first of all, an open mind on the part of the teacher, a willingness to experiment with findings that have resulted from expert study, a readiness to refashion one's viewpoint and methods of procedure. It requires the experimental attitude on the part of the teacher. It expects enthusiastic efforts to adapt old means to new ends, and existing texts to new objectives.

## OBJECTIVES IN REVISED COURSE OUTLINES

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[From *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 24, *Instruction in Foreign Languages*, U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Washington, D. C., 1933, pp. 3–4.]

There is general agreement within the profession on two cultural objectives, namely, (1) knowledge of the foreign country and its people, and (2) increased knowledge of English words, English grammar, and relationships between the foreign language and English. In regard to the other objectives with which classroom activities are concerned, there are at present two major trends:

A. The traditional fourfold aim: The progressive development of the ability to read, to write, to speak the language, and to understand it when spoken. The point of view underlying the selection of the fourfold aim is that (*a*) mastery of a language consists in the acquisition of these four skills and (*b*) these skills are so interrelated that they must be developed concurrently. In most course outlines a statement is added to the effect that reading should be considered the primary aim, since it is not possible to provide enough practice in the classroom to develop the ability to speak or to write the language. However, a foundation is to be laid for later acquisition of abilities in speaking and writing, and it is believed further that exercises in writing, in speaking, and in understanding the spoken language are necessary for the acquisition of permanent reading ability.[1] Others consider that the high-school course is too short to enable pupils to acquire even a satisfactory reading ability and so frankly limit the aim to that of laying a foundation in all the four skills.[2]

B. The new statement of objectives formulated by the Study. The immediate objectives of the first two years, in addition to the two cultural objectives, are the "progressive development (*a*) of ability to read books, newspapers, and magazines in the modern language within the scope of the students' interests and intellectual powers; (*b*) of such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for reading with comprehension; (*c*) of the ability to pronounce correctly, to understand, and to use the language orally within the limits of class materials." [3]

The ultimate objectives, which are intended to constitute the "surrender value" of the 2-year course if study should cease at this point, include the ability to read the language and to use it orally within limits clearly defined. . . . The objectives of the third and fourth years are an expansion and deepening of power in the directions indicated for the preceding years. Reading is to be developed until ability in the foreign language approximates that in the mother tongue. The teacher should seek to develop in his students a functional knowledge of forms and syntax and to take speaking and writing into consideration as ends that are worth while in themselves.[4]

The selection of the list of objectives proposed by the Study is based on (*a*) the testimony of selected teachers as to the attainment of their pupils; (*b*) an analysis of scores on standardized tests given throughout the country; and (*c*) recent enrollment figures which point out that about 83 per cent of students of a modern language in the secondary schools pursue it for only two years at most, and that only about 57 per cent of those who begin continue even through a second year. It embodies a 2-phase attack on the four basic language skills. Priority of emphasis is placed on the two passive phases of language learning for the purpose of giving a higher terminal value to the short course as well as to provide an adequate foundation for complete mastery of the language in a longer course. The committee presents the list of aims as a result of their interpretation of all available data bearing on the problem, but with full consciousness of the need for further experimental testing of the validity of the proposed aims.[5]

## NOTES

1. See courses of study in Connecticut (State) 1930; Kansas (State) 1930; Kansas City, 1930, and St. Louis, Mo., 1926; South Bend, Ind., 1930; Texas (State) 1927.

2. See courses of study in New York (State) 1931; Rochester, N. Y., 1929.

3. Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1929, p. 107.

4. Fife, *A Summary of Reports on the Modern Foreign Languages.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1931, p. 38.

5. For a fuller discussion of objectives see Coleman, op. cit., Ch. I; Cole, Robert D., *Modern Foreign Languages and their Teaching.* New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1931. Ch. II, including the extensive references to books and current periodical literature.

## OBJECTIVES

[From *Final Report of the Committee on Modern Foreign Languages,* Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts, 1933, p. 7.]

### I. IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES.

1. Progressive development of the power:
   - a. To read the language with ease and enjoyment.
   - b. To understand the spoken language.
   - c. To use the spoken language *within the limits of the students' maturity and experience.*
   - d. To pronounce the language intelligibly.
   - e. To express directly in the written language ideas *within the limits of the students' maturity and experience.*

* * * * *

2. The laying of a foundation upon which to build rapidly and easily a fluent command of the spoken and written language, should the student later desire to use it, in order to meet the ordinary needs of daily life in a foreign country or of communication with its natives.

### II. ULTIMATE OBJECTIVES.

1. A high degree of attainment in the immediate objectives.

2. A knowledge of the contribution of foreign peoples to modern civilization, and a sympathetic understanding of their history, life, thoughts, ideals, standards and traditions.

(Descartes, Discours de la Méthode: "Il est bon de savoir quelque chose des mœurs de divers peuples, afin de juger des nôtres plus sainement, et que nous ne pensions pas que tout ce qui est contre nos modes soit ridicule et contre raison, ainsi qu'ont coutume de faire ceux qui n'ont rien vu.")

3. Development of literary and artistic appreciation through increased knowledge of foreign literature, arts, and music.

4. An adequate equipment for those who are to enter the fields of foreign commerce and finance, foreign scientific and historical studies, medicine, journalism, teaching, engineering, and governmental service in foreign countries.

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# LANGUAGE OBJECTIVES

RESEARCH COUNCIL, M.L.A. OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

[From *H*, XVII, 3, Oct. 1934, 290–294.]

The ideal of American public schools has always been to provide an equal opportunity for our boys and girls to obtain an education. During the entire nineteenth century our educational leaders pointed with pride to our democratic system where education was free and accessible to all, while European countries clung to their traditional dual systems which permitted less than 20 per cent of their youth to aspire to higher education. In practical operation, however, our system was not so different from theirs, since less than 20 per cent of our young people of high-school age were actually enrolled in secondary schools, and the majority of these students were preparing for a professional career or an occupation in which intellectual training was of primary importance.

Today the American schools present a totally different aspect. Now 80 per cent of the students of high-school age in the state of California are actually attending school, and those who expect to use their high-school training as a basis for later intellectual careers now form a very small minority. During the present decade a similar transformation is taking place at the college level.

Educational leaders are alive to the far-reaching import of this popular interest in formal education. On every hand we see evidence of socialization and integration. No subject is justified in the modern curriculum of a secondary school because it provides the foundation of a superstructure to be reared at a later period. No subject can be taught any more for its own sake or because it has a traditional prestige. Studies with a demonstrable socializing tendency will be expanded, and those with merely individual or specializing values will be more and more completely relegated to the later years of the secondary school course and to the college level.

The question therefore arises in the case of every traditional subject: Has this subject a general socially integrating value which justifies its inclusion in the core-program recommended for all students of normal mentality, such as history or English, or may this subject because of its specialized or occupational value safely be postponed to the college level or designated as an extracurricular pursuit, such as piano playing, theory of design, or wallpaper hanging?

On behalf of the teachers of modern languages in southern California the Research Council has undertaken a careful survey of modern language values in the light of the new demands of secondary education. The Research Council is convinced that modern language teachers must thoroughly revise their aims and technique. Specific values which we formerly considered of primary importance now appeal to a diminishing minority of our students, and the general values which we formerly considered as merely incidental must now be recognized as of vital importance.

To be sure, language instruction still serves the same fundamental purpose as in European schools in the education of those students who will enter a professional career, but we must in the immediate future lay far greater emphasis on the contribution of modern languages to general intelligence. Every modern language teacher should give careful consideration to the fundamental purposes of American secondary education and the unique values which the study of foreign languages can contribute in the social integration of the average student. We therefore submit the following summary of the general objectives for foreign language instruction, together with an outline of the detailed statements prepared by subcommittees for French, German, and Spanish.

Each of the modern world languages can be so taught as to attain those objectives in a unique manner supplementing and emphasizing the work of other departments. In so far as we attain these objectives we shall be justified in urging our principals, superintendents, and boards of education to retain foreign language instruction in the curriculum as a required or recommended part of the course of study for all students of normal mentality. Then we may insist on the introduction of foreign language instruction earlier in the curriculum and also hold an increasing proportion of our students in advanced courses or extracurricular groups throughout their school career.

### GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

I. Increased command of fundamental processes and skills needed for social living by first-hand acquaintance with the achievements of a foreign people in the great fields of human endeavor.

II. Better social understanding through first-hand study of a foreign civilization leading to a more intelligent appreciation of our American institutions.

III. Growth of self-knowledge and the power of self-direction through incentives found in the study of a foreign language.

IV. Greater vocational fitness and avocational resourcefulness by providing a practical instrument for furthering professional research and for enriching cultural and recreational interests.

V. More intelligent dynamic citizenship through first-hand contacts with the ideals and institutions of a foreign people.

VI. Growth in positive ethical character by instilling the spirit of open-mindedness and good will.

REPORT OF RESEARCH COUNCIL
MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF
SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

### OBJECTIVES FOR THE TEACHING OF SPANISH [1]

I. Physical and mental health to provide opportunities—

A. For developing the right attitude toward the value of a healthy mind in a healthy body through comparing living conditions in Spanish-speaking countries with those in United States.

B. For contributing indirectly to a health program through increasing appreciation of certain wholesome traits of the Latin peoples which we lack, as (1) unhurried attitude toward life; (2) enjoyment of simple pleasures; (3) appreciation of non-material values; (4) temperance and moderation in personal habits; (5) community encouragement of music and other arts as popular recreation.

II. Increased command of fundamental processes and skills needed for continuous growth, social living, and problem solving to provide opportunities for increasing command of the fundamental processes or skills needed for appropriating the worth-while in our social heritage and elements essential for effective social living, such as:

A. The ability to express ideas clearly through (1) translation *from* and composition (oral and written) *in* the Spanish language; (2) an increased understanding of the mechanics of language, including sentence structure, idiom, and word values, which in the course of the study will be gained directly in Spanish, indirectly in English, and possibly in other languages.

B. Practice in abstract thinking, leading to increased reasoning ability through (1) study and analysis of language as a vehicle of thought, comparison of idioms, etc.; (2) summarizing the thought of the Spanish writer in English.

C. Discriminating in values through comparison of the Spanish and Anglo-Saxon viewpoints and weighing the soundness of each.

D. The ability to comprehend thought directly through the medium of the foreign language, written or spoken.

III. Growth in social understanding and in the mastery of social techniques to provide opportunities—

A. For becoming familiar with the physical universe in which we live, through study of the geography and physical environment of the Spanish-speaking peoples and, through comparison, a fuller knowledge of our own geography and physical environment.

B. For developing a spirit of world-mindedness and internationalism through (1) first-hand contact with the ideals, institutions, and achievements as well as the language of the Spanish-speaking peoples; (2) elimination of the provincialism and self-satisfaction with which we Americans are so justifiably charged; (3) appreciation of our Spanish heritage including (*a*) laws and property rights, (*b*) customs, traditions, and arts, (*c*) Spanish names and words in our vocabulary.

C. For fostering a justifiable pride and loyalty to all worthy American ideals and institutions through (1) comparison with different ideals and institutions as found among Spanish-speaking peoples; (2) increasing realization that the finest patriotism now involves world-citizenship and recognition of the interdependence of the nations of the world; (3) understanding that the different present-day national institutions and ideals are the result of age-long traditions and customs; (4) developing a self-critical evaluation of American institutions through studying the attitude of Spanish peoples toward them.

D. For encouraging a more sympathetic understanding and fairer treatment of fellow-students and fellow-citizens who are of foreign birth and background through (1) growing appreciation of the worth-while qualities which characterize other peoples; (2) increasing realization of the essential oneness of human nature. This objective is admittedly that of many other subjects, but foreign language study contributes in a special and distinctive way to its achievement because: (*a*) the longer time devoted to each topic contributes to a more intensive comprehension on the part of the student; (*b*) the use of the people's own language adds an attraction and satisfaction which has an emotional bearing on the student's appreciation; (*c*) the teacher is an enthusiastic specialist in the culture and civilization of the people whose language he teaches.

IV. Growth in self-knowledge and the power of self-direction to provide opportunities—

A. For discovering interests and potentialities (1) in opening the field of Spanish literature and arts for avocational and recreational purposes; (2) in arousing a desire to travel in Spanish-speaking countries.

B. For growing in the ability to utilize knowledge gained about Spanish-speaking peoples so as to participate in the effective adjustment of present-day international problems through (*a*) increased interest in organizations which promote internationalism; (*b*) work among foreign population in our own country.

V. Growth toward vocational fitness and avocational resourcefulness to provide opportunities—

A. For contributing to vocational fitness of those who may live in Spanish-speaking countries for commercial, diplomatic, or professional reasons through (1) knowledge of the fundamentals of the language; (2) increased understanding of the people.

B. For enhancing the vocational fitness of those who make use of Spanish in the United States as social workers, radio announcers, or in commercial or social relationships.

C. For training those who may teach Spanish.

D. For preparing those who may use Spanish as a means of research in the sciences or fine arts.

VI. Intelligent dynamic citizenship to provide opportunities—

A. For increased understanding and appreciation of our world-wide human problems and the social controls of a democracy through a broadened point of view leading to realization that our national safety and well-being depend upon our understanding of and co-operation with other peoples that we may make the world a better place in which to live.

B. For growth in the ability to study those controls critically, dispassionately, and to learn how to contribute through democratic processes to their improvement through (1) comparison of our social institutions and customs with those of Spanish peoples; (2) development of greater receptivity to the other person's point of view.

C. For the acquiring of the dynamic urge to practice good citizenship through purposeful participation in co-operative social groups through (1) realization of what the young intellectuals of Spanish-speaking countries have accomplished; (2) comparison of political attitudes and activities in our country with contrasting conditions in Spanish countries.

VII. Growth in positive ethical character to provide opportunities for the formulation of a growing life philosophy which will:

A. Serve as a criterion for the development of worthy life goals through (1) studying the language and literature of the Spanish-speaking people which is the "crystallization of their soul-life"; (2) comparing ethical standards as disclosed in Spanish literature with our own and those of other peoples.

B. Instill the spirit of good will which constitutes the great dynamic force of moral life through (1) using the study of Spanish as a means of realizing that our way is not the only way and as a means of achieving openmindedness; (2) acquiring an "insight into," leading to an "understanding of" and "sympathy with," the thought life of others.

## NOTE

1. Submitted by the Education Committee of the Spanish Section of the Modern Language Association of Southern California: H. A. Nordahl, B. C. Benner, Ruth Frothingham, M. Melick, Bessie M. McVicker, Esperanza Carrillo, Mrs. Harriet Shadforth, Carol G. Dunlop, Leslie E. Lynn, Mary Elizabeth Davis, *Chairman.*

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# OUTCOMES AS OBJECTIVES

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[From *FR,* IX, 3, Feb. 1936, 224–230.]

It is a seemingly common failing of course of study committees in foreign languages seldom to progress beyond the discussion of objectives. The absence of a well-defined educational philosophy for the nation as a whole, and the rapid changes both in social and economic life, and in educational theory and practice, make the derivation of aims exceedingly difficult. Scarcely is a set of objectives formulated, when a new emphasis in education necessitates its complete restatement. New points of emphasis are so rapid in modern education that curriculum committees often find themselves in a quandary respecting the utility of their work. "What is the use of our writing a list of objectives when next year we shall probably have to write it all over again?" "What ever became of the course of study we wrote last year?" These, and similar queries, are the type of questions which the curriculum specialist is certain to encounter in many vicinities.

While it may be desirable to maintain a standing committee on objectives in every subject field, it is certainly urgent, in the interest of faculty morale, and of instructional practice, that the work of curriculum revision at some time pass beyond the philosophical stage. Much pin-wheel activity, it seems, could be avoided if course of study committees would devote themselves from the start to the consideration of the following very concrete problems:

1. What are all the conceivable values that are attainable through *experience* in the study of a foreign language? (The answer to this question yields what may be termed the possible "concomitant" outcomes of the field).

2. What are all the conceivable values that a command of a foreign language can yield? (The answer to this question indicates what may be termed the possible "direct" outcomes of the program).

3. What are all the conceivable values that can be attained through subject-matter contracted in the process of acquiring the foreign language? (The answer to this question yields what may be termed the possible "associate" outcomes of the program).

4. Which of the foregoing values can make the most significant contribution to present day needs (aims) in education? (The answer to this question yields the "objectives" for the foreign language course of study at a given time).

5. How long a period of work is ordinarily required, under favorable conditions of learning and instruction, to attain the degrees of skill prerequisite to the realization of each outcome? (The answer to this question determines the "grade-placement" or allocation of content and activities).

Effort directed toward the derivation of valid answers to these questions should be productive of more constructive results than present methods of approach. The answers to questions 1, 2, and 3, should lead to an inclusive list of all conceivable values—"a treasury of possible outcomes," so to speak, for the subsequent derivation of objectives. Different values can then be converted into objectives from time to time as shifts in educational emphasis require—without the necessity of a renewed beginning from scratch. The answers to questions 4 and 5 subsequently determine the selection and allocation of content and learning activities for each instructional level.

The accompanying outline of outcomes is intended as a suggestive (by no means complete) answer to questions 1, 2, and 4, stated as nearly as possible in the idiom of contemporary educational parlance—i. e., in keeping with the current emphasis on "consumer education," "integration," "curricula for social intelligence," and the like. Although it is not assumed that any school, or even school system, will wish to adopt all values cited, even as ultimate aims, the summary (being derived from a representative sampling of objectives as found in professional literature) may conveniently serve as a reference or check-list in course of study building. The items selected for emphasis in specific cases may well vary with the needs of the community, the school, and with each language.

Classified according to the five major areas of human interest the outcomes are as follows:

I. Outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals associated with the building of desirable physical and mental health. These include (see reference number 1):

1. Worthy attitudes toward the value of a healthy mind in a healthy body through comparison of living conditions in foreign countries with those in the individual's environment.
2. An appreciation of such wholesome traits of foreign peoples as have a bearing on emotional and physical health, and as deserve emphasis in our daily life: e. g.,
   (1) Temperance and moderation in personal habits.
   (2) Enjoyment of simple pleasures.
   (3) Community encouragement of music, folk-dancing, games, and other arts as popular recreation.
   (4) Unhurried attitude toward life.
   (5) Appreciation of non-material values.
3. An appreciation of the importance of the problems of sanitation and public health generally, insofar as these are manifest in the life of a foreign people; for example, health problems in relation to climatic factors, levels of literacy, organized health services, popular food habits, etc.

II. Outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals associated with understanding, adjusting to, and co-operatively improving the social environment. These embrace:

1. A realization of the essential oneness of human nature.
2. Greater openmindedness and tolerance in human relationships whether personal or national.

3. The development of a spirit of internationalism and world-mindedness through exposure to foreign cultures.
4. A more sympathetic understanding and fairer treatment of fellow students and fellow citizens of foreign birth or background.
5. The development of a more genuine patriotism through a comparison of American ideals and institutions with those of foreign peoples.
6. An appreciation of the foreign origins of our national culture in laws and property rights, customs, traditions, arts, and language.
7. Worthy ideals for the motivation of personal morality and ethical conduct derived from the best in the literature, philosophy, and customs of foreign peoples.
8. A philosophy of life capitalizing the best offerings in the ideals, customs, and literature of foreign peoples.
9. Increased social literacy through ability to communicate in the foreign tongue.
10. Pleasure in the society of educated people, whether native or foreign, and a feeling of "at-homeness" in their presence.
11. An appreciation of foreign languages as cultural media of communication rather than as inferior lingoes.
12. The deflation of an ignorant and supercilious egotism, whether provincial or national.

III. Outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals associated with understanding, appreciating, adjusting to, and improving the physical environment. The outcomes in this area comprehend (see reference number 1):

1. A more intimate acquaintance with the physical universe in which we live through a study of the geography and physical environment of foreign peoples, and through comparison, a fuller knowledge of our own geography and physical environment.
2. A greater appreciation of the material environment in terms of an acquaintance with the contributions of foreign peoples, through science and invention, to the improvement of living conditions and to the increase in human comforts.
3. An interest in the problems of physical and mental health through a comparative study of such customs, traditions, and practices of foreign peoples as have a bearing upon health conditions.
4. Increasing ability, through knowledge of the foreign tongue, to make ready use of foreign contributions in the field of science and invention.

IV. Outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals associated with the development of vocational efficiency. These include:

1. Linguistic abilities of value in:
    (1) Extending the range of the individual's occupational literacy.
    (2) Increasing the area of marketability of personal service.
    (3) Research along professional lines.
2. Attitudes, interests, knowledges, and appreciations of value.
    (1) In business and professional relationships with foreign speaking people.
    (2) As a cultural foundation for continuous self-improvement in vocational pursuits.

V. Outcomes contributive to the realization of student goals in the worthy use of leisure. These embrace:

1. A greater interest in international affairs, thereby making for:
    (1) A more effective capitalization of the cultural resources afforded by periodicals, the daily press, the radio, etc.
    (2) A fuller appreciation of newsreels, open forum discussions, lectures, etc.
    (3) Greater "at-homeness" in the society of educated people.
2. A greater interest in travel, thereby contributing to a more worthy occupation of leisure time through:
    (1) A reading of books and magazines on foreign countries.
    (2) Attendance at lectures on travel.
    (3) Attendance at travel-films.
3. A recreational interest in foreign literature, whether in the foreign tongue or in translation.
4. An interest in foreign language study as a hobby or avocational pursuit.
5. An avocational interest in foreign correspondence.
6. Increased enjoyment of radio programs, songs, and operas delivered in the foreign tongue, talking pictures and newsreels containing foreign dialogue, etc.
7. Increased enjoyment in the evidences of foreign culture in the immediate environment; e. g.,
    (1) In music, art, and architecture.
    (2) In customs derived from abroad.
    (3) In foreign words and expressions occurring in the vernacular.
    (4) In "fiesta" programs, fêtes, and local celebrations of foreign anniversaries.
8. A worthy occupation of leisure through active membership in open forum clubs, literary societies, international and cosmopoli-

tan clubs, foreign correspondence clubs, travel clubs, foreign language study groups.

9. An appreciation of language as an art, thereby contributing to:
    (1) A greater enjoyment of style and usage in speech and literature.
    (2) A greater interest in language as an index to individual and to national culture.
    (3) An avocational interest in the psychology, history, or science of language.
10. A vicarious satisfaction of the "Wanderlust."
11. An intrinsically worthwhile substitute for travel and residence abroad.

## NOTES

1. Report of the Research Council, Modern Language Association of Southern California. "Language Objectives"; in *Hispania,* Vol. xvii, No. 3, pp. 290–294 (October, 1934).

2. Robert D. Cole. *Modern Foreign Languages and their Teaching.* D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1931, 598 pages; pp. 21–48. (Bibliography of fifty-two references on objectives at end of chapter.)

3. Algernon Coleman. *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching:* 1927–1932. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois; 296 pages; pp. 69–73. (Gives abstracts of eleven articles.)

4. ————. *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching.* The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1934, 367 pages; pp. 97–99 presents a list of 84 syllabi and courses of study published between 1926 and 1934. Of interest to those who desire to investigate current practice as exemplified in courses of study.

5. "Syllabus for the Foreign Language Section of the *Stanford University Conferences on Curriculum and Instruction,* June 25–30, Stanford University Press, 1934, 72 pages; pp. 53–57. (Of interest for its statement of timely issues.)

6. Emil Lange and Walter V. Kaulfers. "Trends in Teaching of Foreign Language"; Bibliographies on Secondary Education, No. 48-A; California State Department of Education, Division of Secondary Education, Sacramento, July 2, 1934.

7. Walter Vincent Kaulfers. "Spanish for Social Intelligence"; in *Hispania,* Vol. xvi, No. 1, pp. 51–58 (February–March, 1933).

8. ————. "Some Recent Trends in the Re-orientation of Foreign Language Instruction"; in *Hispania,* Vol. xviii, No. 1, pp. 87–102 (February, 1935).

# AIMS OF HIGH SCHOOL INSTRUCTION IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

[From *Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages*, The University of the State of New York, Albany, 1937–1945, pp. 8–10. Reprinted by permission of the State Education Department.]

A statement of the aims of instruction in the modern foreign languages should differentiate between the elementary course (the two-year course) on the one hand, and the intermediate and advanced courses on the other. The great majority of pupils take but two years of any modern foreign language, and it is this course that must justify itself to all concerned.

## *Aims of the Elementary Course*

The aims of instruction in the elementary course must be such as to make the work valuable in a general way to those who discontinue it at the end of that period, and make it serve in more specific ways as a foundation for future work for the others. Common to both these classes of pupils are the following attainable aims:

1. General training in habits of industry, concentration, accurate observation, intelligent discrimination, systematic arrangement and presentation, careful memorizing and independent thinking; for example, making generalizations from observed phenomena
2. Acquisition of specific data about the foreign nation (history, geography, cultural accomplishments, scientific attainments, comparative level of standard of living of the masses)
3. Some elementary general notions about languages and the interrelationship of languages and nations; for example, the debt of English to French, or the linguistic relationship of the commonest English words to parent Germanic tongues, or cultural borrowings and inspirations
4. Elementary principles of phonetics, both as an indispensable means of attaining a passably accurate pronunciation of the foreign language (especially French) and as an aid to better enunciation and pronunciation of English.
5. The mastery of the fundamentals of the grammar, syntax and vocabulary and more usual idiomatic expressions of the foreign language in an orderly progression from year to year and course to course.

These fundamentals have been relatively established by studies of frequencies (that is, relatively frequent recurrence of words, idioms, grammatical and syntactical relations, in counts ranging from one to ten million running words).

It is the conviction of the syllabus committee (1) that the first four aims can not be accomplished by any other means than as an integral part of a course in the foreign language. Such a course in English would be a waste of time, because it would be lacking in interest, in motivation, in first-hand contact with the one thing that essentially distinguishes the foreign nation from all others—its language; and (2) that there can be no lasting results in this elementary language study except there be laid a solid foundation of three dimensions—the length, breadth and thickness of aural, oral and written exercises based on connected reading selections. This implies not only the aim of fluency in reading, but also adequate drill in hearing, speaking and writing the language, not in isolated sentences illustrating grammatical rules, but in connected speech-forms or units of discourse. The Ollendorff method of unrelated sentences has no justification in modern pedagogy.

### *Aims of the Intermediate and Advanced Courses*

Valid and attainable aims of the intermediate and advanced courses are the following:

1. To acquire increased skill and precision in the use of the knowledge already gained and to extend that knowledge
2. To secure the ability to read intelligently texts of ordinary difficulty with only occasional reference to dictionary or special vocabulary
3. To awaken an interest in the foreign literature by a study of a few of its masterpieces, especially in the advanced course (fourth year)

These aims tend to make the reading of the foreign language approximate the reading of the vernacular (in graded relations, of course), by direct perception of the meaning of the printed sentence, paragraph and page. It is the conviction of the syllabus committee that the *method* is all-important for the accomplishment of this ultimate reading aim of the instruction in all foreign language work.

# OBJECTIVES

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(pp. 31-33) The selection of subject matter for an educational program and the development of a method for presenting it will be first of all determined by pupil needs, and by the ways in which the program may serve them. This definition of the basic functions of a course must be the first concern of all persons responsible for planning or giving it. Attainment of these functions then becomes the objective of teaching, and both curriculum and method may evolve from it.

It is generally accepted that the essential concern of our teaching must be the development of wholesome individuals, fitted to make a living and to play a proper part in our common life. This rearing of young Americans, curriculum-makers as well as modern-language teachers have come to realize, is a far more vital concern than the fate of any particular subject in the curriculum. This point of view has resulted in a new conception of subject matter in terms of its possible functioning in the pupil's life.

Courses of study have accordingly come to be classified in two general groups—those that prepare the pupil to make a living and those that train him to co-operate with other individuals in such a way as to make life satisfying and wholesome for him and for the community in which he lives. We therefore have the tool subjects, designed to give the pupil specific useful skills—reading, writing, number study, and various specific vocational skills—and more or less distinct from them, those subjects that give the pupil an understanding knowledge of, and an ability to enjoy, his social and cultural heritage and to become an effectively functioning member of groups of which he finds himself a member. In this secondary category belong the cultural and artistic subjects as well as those that have come to be known as "social studies."

Foreign languages have a definite contribution to make in each of these categories. Their usefulness in the first will depend on the specific needs for a foreign language that arise in the pupil's life. The extent to which they function in the second regard will depend largely on the shaping of the language course and the quality of the teaching done. In order that this end of language teaching may be well served, it is important that a long-range view be taken of its possibilities for contributing to the growth of the pupil as an individual and as a member of society.

With the departmentalization of subject matter in our schools, teaching came to be absorbed with certain specific skills or informational content that as a consequence of their detachment from the significant stream of life experience frequently became devitalized and useless. Foreign languages suffered no less than other subjects in the school curriculum in this respect. The need is consequently urgent for a thoroughgoing analysis by every modern-language teacher and administrator of the contributions his work may make to vital and significant educational objectives.

## OBJECTIVES DEFINED

The "Cardinal Principles" of education, as promulgated years ago by a committee of the National Education Association [1] and since become the *magna charta* of education, set up as the objectives of secondary education (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes—reading, writing, number, (3) worthy home membership, (4) a vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character.

Since the promulgation of the Cardinal Principles, various writers have reformulated these objectives, stating them in more modern terminology that stresses particular needs which have become increasingly important in our changing society. F. Bobbitt, for instance, adds to the original list religious, parental, and general mental activities, for at least one of which the teacher of young children [2] need feel no concern. They have also defined criteria for judging teaching objectives: (1) Any educational objective should be so clearly stated as to indicate the appropriate means of attaining it, as to method, materials, and mental processes; (2) it should appeal to both students and teachers; (3) it should be attainable to a satisfactory degree by the majority of the class under the given circumstances; and (4) it should comport with the aims of education in general.

The objectives so far indicated are in no way the special or particular concern of the language teacher, but they must be continually in his view if his contributions to worthwhile educational aims are to attain significance. Fortunately a number of the ultimate teaching aims of education are by-products of regular classroom life when it is properly conducted. Others are achieved by slight auxiliary suggestion or attention on the part of the teacher. Always, however, the teacher's example is of prime importance, and he may have the comforting feeling that certain changes for good are going on in his pupils in season and out when he provides the proper example in the classroom.

## NOTES

1. *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education,* United States Bureau of Education, 1918, Bulletin No. 35.

2. *How to Make a Curriculum,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924. See also David Snedden, *Sociological Determination of Educational Objectives,* J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1921.

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# OBJECTIVES OF THE ARMY SPECIALIZED TRAINING PROGRAM

**[From *A Survey of Language Classes in the A.S.T.P.,* Report of a special committee, prepared for The Commission on Trends in Education, The Modern Language Association, N. Y. 1944, p. 4.]**

### *Specific Objectives*

"The objective of the language instruction is to impart to the trainee a command of the colloquial *spoken* form of the language. This command includes the ability to speak the language fluently, accurately, and with an acceptable approximation to a native pronunciation. It also implies that the student will have a practically perfect auditory comprehension of the language as spoken by natives. Experience has shown that with the proper methodology the objective can be achieved in six to nine months.

Study of the system of orthography in which a language is normally written is not an objective *per se.* It is to be undertaken only to implement attainment of the above defined objectives. The time in the course at which written materials in the normal orthography of the language under study can be introduced will vary from language to language. It will be conditioned by the degree to which the system represents a phonemic transcription of the language, the degree to which the succession of written symbols represents the succession of significant sounds in speech. In Turkish and Hungarian, such materials can be used from the beginning; in Japanese and Chinese, only very late, if at all."

# WHAT SHALL THE AIMS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING BE IN THE LIGHT OF RECENT EXPERIENCE?

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[From *HP*, XXVII, 4, April 1945, 15–18.]

The question "What shall the aims of foreign language teaching be?" has reference, of course, to the objectives of our high-school course of study. The term "recent experience" in this connection refers obviously to the Army Specialized Training Program which aroused so much popular interest and professional discussion.

The general effect of the A.S.T.P. was rather salutary, for it stimulated a widespread desire to acquire quickly a practical knowledge of a foreign language. It also had a wholesome pedagogical influence in stressing the oral phase of foreign languages and in emphasizing the fact that a modern language is, after all, a living medium of communication.

Unfortunately, however, some of the popular literature dealing with the procedures and achievements of the A.S.T.P. has misled not only the layman, but also the teacher. Through incorrect or superficial descriptions of the methods used, and through fantastic claims made for the success of these methods, it was made to seem as if an educational miracle had been accomplished. This, in itself, would not have caused much harm. The real damage was done when the writers of the articles concluded their panegyrics by a satiric side-thrust at the average foreign language teacher with the petulant question: "What has the school been doing all these years? Why has it not employed these marvelous methods?"

As has been pointed out repeatedly by those who have made a study of the A.S.T.P. and have attempted to evaluate it, whatever measure of success was attained was due fundamentally to a number of favorable factors and not to the use of a new and wonderful method. In fact, most observers agree that there was much diversity of method. The essential features of the A.S.T.P. which distinguished it from the ordinary high-school and college set-up were: the large time-allotment, the highly-selected students, the small classes, the direct motivation, and the pressure of Army discipline. Actually the Army was offering an intensive and highly-concentrated course of six years of high-school work within nine months to a body of eager young men who had every inducement to learn.

Fundamental, too, was the singleness and definiteness of aim, namely, the endeavor to provide the student within as short a time as possible with oral fluency in the foreign tongue, to be used in actual life situations. This came to be known as the "conversational aim."

The objective of the school, on the other hand, has been to provide the student with a comprehension ability so as to enable him to read with ease and enjoyment foreign language material of a fair degree of difficulty. This is the so-called "reading aim." Its acceptance was largely a compromise, for it was felt that it was the only objective which was reasonably attainable within the two years devoted to the average course in foreign languages.

Perhaps the designation "reading" aim was unfortunate, for it seemed to mean that skill in reading was the sole objective. However, at the time it was set up, it was definitely stated that the use of the spoken tongue was not precluded; that reading was not the only but merely the chief aim. Provision was made for oral and written practice, for memory work, dictation, and composition. It was obvious that merely reading a selection, either silently or aloud, without any discussion or oral reproduction, would be stultifying. In the progressive teacher's classroom there has always been speaking and writing as well as reading.

Furthermore, according to our New York syllabus, the reading aim was merely the immediate objective; the ultimate aim was to acquaint the student with the foreign civilization. One could, then, just as well have spoken of the "cultural" aim.

The theme of our discussion implies that the present objective of foreign language instruction is not adequate and that there is need for a change. Considering the contribution of the A.S.T.P., which was, in a sense, the most extensive recent experiment in this field, two questions arise: (1) Shall the school adopt the conversational aim? (2) Is it possible to achieve this aim within the framework of the present high-school curriculum?

My answer to both of these questions is "No." Taking the second question first, our students are so uneven in mental equipment and desire to learn, our classes are so large, and our time is so limited, that it would be folly to set up the conversational aim. Greater stress on oral activities is highly desirable, but setting up conversation as the chief and sole aim would prove disastrous. The number of failures would be greater than it is at present.

That the school should adopt the conversational aim is demanded primarily by those who insist that the outcome of language instruction should be facility in a practical skill. This is not demanded of other subjects; in the academic high school even commercial and pre-vocational subjects are taught essentially for their educational values. The school, after all, is not a training camp, working under high pressure, with intensive methods, designed to equip trainees with an immediately usable skill, but an educational institution organized to develop character, build citizenship, and transmit the cultural heritage of the race. Its major interest must remain life values.

Conversation is one of the most useful, interesting and stimulating phases of a foreign language. It is a highly desirable skill and may be made a life value. However, it requires unremitting practice in its acquisition and in its maintenance. As teachers of living languages we should be eager to develop it in our better students. I am sure that we would be fairly successful if we could be given, in addition to the five periods of regular instruction, three laboratory periods for oral practice. To make this practice most effective it would have to be provided under conditions resembling those of the A.S.T.P., namely, highly-selected students, small groups, genuine motivation, and superior teachers.

As for the large majority of our students, we must take into account that for many of them the foreign language is only another school-subject; that their main interest may lie elsewhere; that only a very small portion of them will ever use the language for practical purposes in travel, research, commercial correspondence, translation, or teaching. For them the broader cultural and educational values must remain paramount.

As far as the immediate linguistic objective is concerned, the aim of foreign language teaching, under our present organization in the high school, should be to equip the student, through daily practice in reading, writing, and speaking, with the absolutely necessary fundamentals of the language, so that he has a firm foundation on which to build if he is to make practical use of the language later in life. If the school has given him this basic equipment, the student can readily develop his facility in reading, writing, and speaking for practical purposes or personal enjoyment.

# 5 : PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

## FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING

M. A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee
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[From *Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology*, Toronto, 1928, pp. 57–72. P.A.C.C., Vol. VIII. Reprinted by permission of M. A. Buchanan.]

### Distribution of Learning

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Pyle, in a study of the learning of an artificial language by college students, found that of four periods, 15, 30, 45 and 60 minutes respectively, the 30-minute period gave the best results. This conclusion is in agreement with all other studies on the matter; it is short, intensive study periods that educate. Lyon, using nonsense syllables, prose and poetry; Pyle, using an artificial language; Murphy, studying javelin throwing, and Austin, in a study of the learning of sense material, compared the values of concentrating the learning in short periods of time with those resulting from distributing practice in various ways. Pyle found that it was better to have one practice period a day than one period every other day or twice a day; Murphy found no appreciable difference in learning a motor skill between daily and alternate-day practice; Lyon and Austin found that the "best distribution" depended in part on the type of material (no difference with sense material, Pyle), and in part on the time of recall (no difference when learning was tested immediately). Robinson found that there was a lower limit to length of practice periods, and a maximum lapse of time between practice periods in learning digits. It is probable (1) that short learning periods, even a half-hour in length, provided they are intensive, are the most economical for high school and college students, (2) that repetitions more frequent than twice a day do not give the optimum results.

### Influence of Attitude

As Douglass[1] points out in a recent review of the literature on this point, the new attitude toward interest as a factor in learning makes this topic an important one. He quotes Meumann, "We profit by continuous practice only in proportion as we incite the will to progress or arouse an intention on the part of the learner to improve. The mere repetition of an act, though it be repeated daily, is by no means sufficient to bring about an improvement in the execution of the act."

Four studies have been selected for this bibliography, those of Swift,[2] Aall, Panicelli, Boswell and Foster. Aall and Panicelli report investigations in which one group of students was warned as to the correct date of an examination on material they had been learning and one group either misinformed or not warned at all. Aall found the former group superior by 4 per cent to 18 per cent, dependent on the content. Panicelli found this group superior by 28 per cent. These data agree with the findings of Peterson and other investigators. Boswell and Foster had four subjects learn for permanent retention two series of sixteen pairs each of Chinese-English words. The number of subjects was small and the differences found were slight, but the authors report some evidence in favour of the opinion that intention to retain affects retention. The study should be repeated.

### ECONOMICAL UNIT

H. Douglass, in a study already referred to, reviews the experimental data accumulated on this question since 1900. The point at issue is whether it pays to learn a poem, a vocabulary, a motor act such as writing or skating, as a complete unit (whole) or by breaking it into sections (part). Only a few studies on this question are included in the bibliography. Despite the numerous investigations, the question cannot be considered as settled. Steffens, Meumann, Pyle, and Snyder and Lakeman have found the whole method superior in memorizing sense material, word-lists and nonsense syllables. On the other hand, Pechstein, Reed, and others, have found the part method superior; the former reporting an adaptation of the part method to be the better for learning both a motor habit and lists of nonsense syllables, and the latter reporting an investigation made with meaningful material. Apparently there is no one single principle that covers all the cases, but the variables causing this disturbance have not yet been isolated. S. C. Parker recommends that elementary movements in oral speech should be learned as parts of complex acts rather than in isolation. It may be necessary to draw out some parts of a vocal habit for special practice, but at the earliest opportunity it should be fitted back into the complete act.

### INFLUENCE OF CONTEXT

F. M. Hamilton, H. Eng, A. Balban, and W. Libby are agreed that learning a vocabulary is much more effective when the words are learned in a context such as paragraphs or sentences (Hamilton, Eng) or when they can be associated by the learner with other experiences (Balban). When students were encouraged to think of associations of words, they were able to acquire eight times as many as when the words were learned in a mechanical fashion. Tests after a lapse of time showed even greater relative superiority. This suggests the importance of taking time in vocabulary learning to acquire associations beyond those of mere juxtaposition. Libby's experiment showed that, as a rule, short sentences could be retained better than an equivalent number of disconnected words. Meaning is a powerful aid to learning.

### Influence of Rhythm

Few experimental studies have been made on the influence of rhythm in learning, but its general value is universally recognized. C. F. Sparkman advances the interesting thesis that continuous reading matter is made up of a sequence of rhythmic sense groups somewhat analogous to the eye-span in silent reading. He defines the group as one limited by an initial and final pause and pronounced as an uninterrupted succession of syllables, marked by a symmetrical movement of utterance and recurring stress. The group is not to be confused with the breath group. Sparkman recommends its use as the psychological unit in oral reading. The suggestion merits experimental investigation.

### Rate of Learning

Three studies dealing with different aspects of the rate of presentation of material have been selected for consideration. R. S. Woodworth demonstrated in an investigation of the learning of pairs of Italian-English words that the pairs learned most quickly were recalled best. Both the rapidity of learning and the efficiency of the retention of certain pairs may be attributed to the presence of associations with these pairs. D. O. Lyon showed that speed of learning and excellence of retention were highly correlated when the material used was logically coherent, but that when the material was not of this type the reverse was true. J. N. Curtis showed that rapid learning seemed to be somewhat more fatiguing than slow learning. She points out that a decision on this matter is extremely difficult to make because of the many variables involved.

### Errors

Very few careful studies of errors in written or spoken foreign language learning have been made. Three such studies appear in the bibliography. Ronjat noted the tendency on the part of Louis to borrow words directly from one language for use in another or to adapt them phonetically. This borrowing was both of words and syntax. It tended to disappear in later life. Kirkman attributes grammatical inaccuracies to a failure to carry practice up to the point of fixing the habit—failure to overlearn. Orton reports an investigation and classification of errors in spelling French. The number of subjects is limited and the author recognizes that a much wider study is required before a reliable statement of relative difficulty of language forms can be made. (See vol. I of *Modern Language Instruction in Canada* for a chapter entitled *Typical Errors in French Examination Papers.*)

### Repetition Versus Recall

The problem here is the relative values of two methods of memorizing, *e. g.*, words or poetry: (*a*) continued re-reading, (*b*) alternate reading and attempted recall. This question has been investigated by both European and American psychologists. In an early study, Thorndike investigated the relative values of the two methods of learning paired words. He reported that eleven of twenty-eight students showed no superiority of performance in the method involving recall. Seibert, in an experiment on the learning of a French vocabulary, studied the relative merits of three methods: (1) continuous silent reading, (2) continuous oral reading, (3) oral reading alternating with attempted recall in writing. She found that reading aloud (method 2) was the most effective, but that students who did well by one procedure did well in the others.

The remaining investigations included in this monograph are unanimous in finding alternate reading and recall the more effective method. Witasek shows that this holds true regardless of the point at which recitation is introduced, except that a few readings, say five or six, should be made first as a means of avoiding error in recall. The same conclusions are reported by Katzaroff and Gates. The latter, in one of the best controlled studies reported, shows that early introduction of recitation is wasteful of time, discouraging, and a source of error. But he agrees with Katzaroff in his general findings, and points out that the value of recitation shows even more definitely in delayed than in immediate recall. Kuhn [3] shows that the superiority of recall holds for a large variety of subject matter, but especially for nonsense materials, and that it is greater for delayed response. He attributes this to the fact that it requires more attentive observation, more careful analysis, and so forth.

A somewhat allied phase of learning is dealt with in articles by Zuccari and by Mould, Treadwell and Washburn. It is a well-known fact that silent reading is accompanied by "inner speech," a form of sub-vocal talking. This phenomenon has been extensively investigated, especially in France and in the United States. Watson,[4] in his analysis of thinking, describes it largely as sub-vocal talking. These sub-vocal habits, "implicit" as contrasted with "explicit" habits in overt speech, may be made more and more implicit by training. If they persist in any overt form they tend to slow up the rate of reading. Can they be suppressed altogether, and if so, with what results? Various forms of inhibition are used—voluntary inhibition, distraction, and so forth. The two studies referred to agree that suppression of articulation in learning lowers efficiency of learning. In Zucarri's experiment the loss was so great that 70 per cent more time was required to bring the material up to the same level of efficiency as obtained when articulation was allowed.

## Influence of Method

Most experiments on method suffer from three restrictions: (1) the methods used select only parts of the principles involved in the direct and indirect methods, (2) the material learned consists of paired lists of words, a content that, as has been pointed out, may not adequately sample language learning, (3) they cover a brief period of time. Five studies of vocabulary learning are reviewed in some detail in the bibliography—those of Schleuter, Schlotkowska and Schoenherr in Germany, of Pargement in the United States and of West in India. Lack of uniformity in terminology makes comparison of results difficult, but the following suggestion seems to be implied in the conclusions advanced by the authors: (1) Ticknor, Judd and others are correct in asserting that there is no one best method; the method to be used varies with the skill and interest of the teacher, the age of pupils, the linguistic surroundings in which learning is proceeding, and so forth. Until experimental evidence is adduced we must conclude that the claims for a universal superiority of any method are matters of faith, rather than of evidence. (2) No one method as used by teachers of language is "pure", *i.e.,* the distinction between methods tends in practice to break down. This mixing of methods may be done by either the pupil or the teacher or both (Schleuter). (3) The results obtained vary according to the type of test applied (Pargement, Scholtkowska, Schleuter); according to the period of learning that has preceded (Pargement); and without doubt to the method of teaching and learning to which the subjects were accustomed before the experiment was undertaken. (4) West's study is perhaps the most "practical" of any of those reported, in that it reports with exact quantitative data the results obtained in a regular class-room situation.

This study illustrates the value of objective tests of achievement in measuring educational progress.

Other studies on method deal with improvement in still other aspects of language learning. Bovée reports an interesting experimental investigation of the influence of formal grammar on reading. He demonstrates that marked improvement in grammatical knowledge may be obtained without any corresponding increase in ability to interpret the thought of a passage, and, conversely, that there may be a decrease in grammatical knowledge accompanied by an increase in reading ability.

Price, Thomson and Richards report the examination of several hundred translations of French and Latin into English by high school students, and attribute the inferior English composition found in these, in large part, to a restricted English vocabulary and careless English style.

Cole's study of the relative values of free composition and translation methods in learning to write a foreign language found the former method the better. This is what we would expect, since the former method only amounts to specific practice in the function to be tested.

### INFLUENCE OF TYPE OF ASSOCIATION

Several psychological studies of association have been included in this bibliography—those of Kirkpatrick, Calkins and Peterson. These have been concerned chiefly with the problem of the relative ease of learning, and permanence of retention of word-word associations, as contrasted with word-object associations. The studies have been accepted as implying an answer to the question in language methodology, as to whether the foreign word should be associated directly with the object or situation to which it refers, or to this object through the medium of a vernacular term. This has become one of the central points in the controversy over "direct" and "indirect" methods of teaching. The experiments here reported can be held to demonstrate: (1) that objects and movements are learned more readily and remembered better than their names. The differences are greater for delayed recall, and are quite marked; (2) linking an artificial language symbol directly with the object or movement to which it refers is more effective than linking it with another word (Peterson). The theoretical advantages of direct association are discussed by Judd in his *Psychology of High School Subjects.* In the subsection of this review entitled *Influence of Context* yet other values of association in learning are indicated. Whether these studies can be held to support or condemn any of the teaching "methods" will depend on the extent to which the method is "pure" (*vide* Schleuter), and whether it approximates the methods used in these laboratory investigations.

## PHONETICS

A large number of studies, hortatory, empirical and experimental, are included in this bibliography on the problem of phonetics. Only those belonging to the latter two classes are selected for mention here. D. Jones and Barrows describe methods of experimental investigation in phonetics. Seydel has written an exposition of the work of the well-known phonetician Abbé Rousselot. Ballard asserts that about two per cent. of students are "sound-deaf and language-dumb." Cummings insists, on the basis of an extended teaching experience of African dialects, that beginners (in the absence of phonetic instruction) hear only their native sounds and substitute them for the real sounds of the language. Kirkman is so convinced of the importance of this fact that he recommends that foreign sounds should be taught before the corresponding letters are shown, lest the reader associate these letter patterns with the sounds of the mother tongue. Parker recommends simplified phonetic instruction with the attention of the learner directed to the objective result of the movement rather than upon the anatomic structures by which this is obtained. He suggests further that elementary movements in speech should be learned as parts of a complex act, *e. g.*, pronunciation of words or phrases, rather than in isolation. The reason for this is probably that cited by Kirkman, good pronunciation involves at least three things: (*a*) ability to pronounce specific sounds that do not occur in English, (*b*) correct stress, (*c*) correct intonation—the last two can be obtained only in the larger unit. Jones also indicates the importance of training in intonation as a supplement to phonetic instruction. Intonation is essential in conveying meaning.

Only two experimental studies are included. In the one made by Berlage the problem was the influence of lapse of time on imitation of the pitch of another's voice. Accuracy in this regard is greatest when the pause is from one to two seconds. If the tone is reproduced too quickly its pitch is usually too low.

Gates reports one of the few experimental studies on the relative values of phonetic and non-phonetic methods of teaching reading of the vernacular to young children. On almost all criteria the non-phonetic method was as good as, or better than, the phonetic method. The author does not interpret his results to suggest the abandonment of phonetic instruction, but considers that there is serious need for determining the conditions, if any, under which phonetic instruction is superior.

## TRANSFER AND INTERFERENCE

The problems of transfer and interference (negative transfer) have received a large amount of attention from psychologists during the present century. It would be of little avail to review many experiments in detail. The general conclusions reached to date are summarized by Gates[5] thus:

"(1) The effect of training in one type of memory or perception or reasoning is usually a marked increase in the specific function trained.

(2) A relatively small improvement in memorizing, etc., when the form of learning or the material learned is different, even if only slightly different.

(3) Complete absence of transfer and negative transfer—that is, a loss of efficiency in one function due to improvement in another—occasionally."

An extensive critical review of the literature on transfer in general is given by Starch.[6] A review of the literature on the transfer values of classical languages has been published by E. D. MacPhee.[7]

In this monograph a considerable number of articles have been included. Not all of them have to do with transfer of foreign language abilities; an effort has been made rather to give sample studies in various phases of the problem. Thus Bode's article is concerned solely with a theoretical analysis of the concept of transfer. Bair's study has been included to demonstrate that two alternate responses to the same stimulus may operate without any interference, that learning a second response does not necessarily weaken the first. Dearborn and Brewer show that in perceptual-motor learning there may be no transfer from one act to another, even when the acts are apparently quite similar in nature. Cole's study of the influence of Latin on modern language learning typifies a statistical technique, the validity of which it is hard to measure. The intelligence factor was apparently under control, and the only obvious explanation of the superior standing of students who had had Latin in high school over those who had not, was the influence of the Latin training. Thorndike, in an extensive investigation of mental discipline with high school students, indicates the difficulty of drawing any such conclusion when all the other types of training received by these students are ignored. The same applies to the study reported by Swift.[8]

In most experimental studies of transfer two paired groups are used; a control group and a practice group. H. Woodrow[9] added a third group, who, in addition to some practice, were given instruction in the most effective methods of memorizing. These students, called the "trained" group, ranked highest after the period of training, and the control group, lowest. The experiment is interpreted by the author as indicating that a method of study may be transferred, and may be the most important factor in determining whether or not positive transfer will be present. Fisher reports a year's experiment in the use of Esperanto as an introduction to the study of French. He found transfer to some processes, and interference with others. The students were a highly selected group.

Epstein and Jorgenson report two studies that are rather peculiar to modern languages. The former, in an empirical study of polyglot individuals, shows that while the two languages come to possess a certain autonomy (*cf.* Bair, Ronjat), interference may appear in both directions between the foreign language and the vernacular. Such interference may affect either the fluency or the clearness of both. It may show itself in five ways: (1) interference with pronunciation, (2) borrowing of words from one language to another, (3) confusion of grammatical forms, (4) altered placement of words, and (5) errors in the formulation of concepts.

Jorgenson's thesis is a type of controlled investigation that might well be duplicated for other languages and other types of language function. He inquired into the influence of novel phonetic elements in the spelling of English words by children from Danish-speaking homes. There are seven such elements common to English not found in the Danish tongue. He found no evidence that these offered any special difficulty to those children whose childhood language was Danish.

## Effects of Practice

As Thorndike points out in his *Psychology of Arithmetic,* the chief criticism of drill made by the psychologist is concerned with its distribution rather than as a phase of pedagogy. There is no alternative to drill, if it is desired to fixate a form of behaviour or to memorize for permanent retention a body of material. On the other hand many textbooks are arranged so that some habits are greatly overlearned, and others barely touched upon.

The chief psychological problems in connection with drill, or continued repetition, as it may be called, are: (1) does continued practice tend to make students more alike? (2) at what point in the practice curves is it possible to predict final efficiency? (3) does continued practice make it possible to learn larger amounts of material in a fixed time? To these problems it is hardly possible to give categorical answers. Kincaid[10] examined a large number of experimental investigations, and concluded that the level of ability shown in the early stages of practice is prognostic of later ability. Wells[11] shows that students tend to hold approximately the same relative positions in adding and cancellation before and after moderate degrees of practice. Practice does not eliminate individual differences; in fact its influence may be very slight.

A single experiment by Hollingsworth[12] may be cited as an answer to the second question. He studied seven functions, and applied a correlation technique to his data. He found marked differences in the speed with which students reached a level at which reliable prediction could be made. Thus rate of colour naming could be predicted after five trials, adding after twenty trials, and discrimination of colours after one hundred and fifty trials.

Thorndike[13] revealed little improvement in the number of pairs of words that could be learned in a specified time. This is apparently a function of maturity and general intellectual level, rather than of training.

There seems to be little doubt that few functions are practised to a point anywhere near the limit of learning. Psychologists are accustomed to draw a distinction between the "psychological" and physiological limits; the former being the level attained under a defined set of conditions; the latter is limited ultimately by speed of nerve impulse, and plasticity of the nervous system. A psychological limit is often unconsciously set by a teacher who then wonders at the relatively poor results which he obtains with his pupils.

With a few exceptions[14] any function can be improved if conditions and motives are arranged to secure it, no matter what the level now obtaining. Obviously under these conditions will come such factors as distribution of practice, attitude of learner, and other factors described in this review.

## MISCELLANEOUS FACTORS

Busemann reports that the ease of learning is dependent on the part of speech, *i.e.*, noun, verb, or adjective, that is being learned. He found that nouns were remembered the best of all, probably because their meaning was better understood. R. F. Richardson discusses the influence of various factors on language learning. Henmon[15] demonstrates, in contradiction of Ebbinghaus, that the difficulty of learning does not increase proportionally with the increase of amount to be learned. Handschin gives a résumé of principles of learning based on experimental data. West and Banerjee report an investigation of evanescence, *i.e.*, the disappearance of ideas gathered in reading in the interval between the reading and the review. The authors attribute this phenomenon in reading to the difficulty which students have in impressing ideas sub-vocally in a foreign language.

* * * * *

## NOTES

1. *Certain Phases of Memory, Ped. Sem.*, 1927, p. 109.
2. *Studies in the Psychology and Physiology of Learning.*
3. *Zeitschrift f. Psych.*, 1914, pp. 396–481.
4. *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*, chap. 9.
5. *Elementary Psychology*, pp. 453–454. New York, Macmillan, 1925.
6. *Educational Psychology*. New York, Macmillan, 1927.
7. *The Transfer Values of the Classics, The School*, 1927, pp. 111–119.
8. *Mind in the Making.*
9. *Effect of Type of Training on Transference.*
10. *A Study of Individual Differences in Learning, Psych. Rev.*, 1925, pp. 34–53.
11. *A.J.P.*, 1912, pp. 75 ff.
12. *Individual Differences Before, During and After Practice, Psych. Rev.*, 1914, pp. 1–8.
13. *Memory for Paired Associates.*
14. *Vide* Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, vol. II, pp. 162–163.
15. *The Relation between Learning and Retention and Amount to be Learned.*

## SUMMARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

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(pp. 45–46) These principles may therefore be considered as sufficiently established to warrant their use in pedagogical practice: (1) If the fourfold learning of language is to be accomplished, the first approach should be aural, the second oral. (2) Modern-language study serves skill in motor control (speaking and writing), visual and aural perception, and discipline in good habits of study. (Wundt, Eggert, Pohlmann, et al.)

There must be conscious memorial activity; matter which is to be retained must be repeated, *i.e.* presented repeatedly to consciousness; rhythmical form and recurrence favor retention; attention is an important factor in memorial activity and attention depends on interest; the feelings (of pleasure or pain and the emotions in general) also play a great part in memorial activity and the feelings manifest themselves in the form of interest. (Meumann, et al.)

The memory for objects and movements is greater than for verbal impressions. (Peterson, Braunshausen, Kirkman, Kirkpatrick, Calkins, Pohlmann.)

Auditory material must be repeated several times slowly, especially for the benefit of visual types. (Pohlmann.)

The ability to recall the vernacular word on presentation of the foreign word (translation from the foreign language) is much greater (2 or 3 times as great) than the ability to recall the foreign word upon presentation of the vernacular (translation into the foreign language). (Schuyten.) For adults, both foreign-word native-word and native-word foreign-word learning are superior to teaching foreign words by means of pictures in point of easiest and surest retention, of fatigue, of most ready reproduction, and of dependence upon form of learning. (Netchajeff.)

The object-foreign-word method of learning is superior to the foreign-word native-word method in point of immediate as well as permanent retention. (Braunshausen.)

Learning words in sentences is easier for immediate or deferred recall than learning isolated words. (Libby, Grinstead, Binet and Henri). It depends upon the nature of the tests (uses to which the knowledge is put) as to which mode of presentation is best employed (Schlüter.)

The reading method is superior to the grammar-translation method for assimilating reading texts as well as for assimilating grammatical knowledge. (Clarahan.)

The study of foreign languages materially increases the student's knowledge of English grammar, but only slightly increases his ability to use English correctly. Training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading. (Starch.)

Transfer of training in grammar study from the study of one language to that of another seems probable. (Swift.)

The difficulty of eradicating errors once committed has been shown. (Kirkman.)

These are, consequently, the principles which may be considered as established or which have high probability. Those who are in doubt about one or all of them may repeat the experiments upon which they are based, thus verifying or controverting them, but *a priori* reasoning about the matter will hardly serve.

# THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EYE-MOVEMENT STUDIES

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[From *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Languages,* N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1928. P.A.C.C., Vol II. Reprinted by permission.]

(pp. 6–7) Before proceeding further with this report, it may be well to call to the reader's attention the meaning of the data derived through the photographing of eye-movements. Superficially considered, eye-movements are simply the results of the contractions of the external muscles of the eye. They are a necessary accompaniment of reading, since it is impossible to read without moving the eyes along the lines of print. However, reading is essentially a central thought process, a process of fusing words and phrases into larger thought units, a process of comprehending meaning. Eye-movements are in no sense causes of good or poor reading; rather they are symptoms of the manner in which one reads.

The significance of eye-movement records in an analysis of the process of reading rests primarily upon the fact that they furnish an objective symptom of the character of the reading process. They have already been studied sufficiently in the reading of the vernacular to make their various characteristics quite clearly understood. Unless the attention of the reader is specifically directed to his eye-movements, he is entirely unconscious of their nature. Consequently, a photographic record of eye-movements is based upon a reaction which cannot be consciously modified to suit the occasion of a test. Furthermore, the data gained through this method are entirely objective and are subject to quantitative study.

Certain basic facts have already been derived through extensive investigations of the eye-movements of children and adults. It has been shown, for example, that immature readers make many fixations per line, that they make many regressive movements, and that the average duration of their fixation pauses is longer than that of mature readers. The typical behavior in these respects has been traced through each grade of the elementary school and the high school, and for groups of college students and adults. It has been shown further that careful reading produces a different type of eye-movements from those produced by rapid or superficial reading; that the reading of difficult subject matter has a marked effect upon the character of one's eye-movements; and that confusion in certain points in the reading is reflected in the character of

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the eye-movement record. It should be clearly understood that a record of eye-movements is not a test of the comprehension of the reader. For this reason, one needs to know the degree of comprehension before interpreting in full the photographic records. Eye-movement records are of value chiefly as symptoms of the mental processes of the reader, and, as such, they furnish an excellent means for investigating the changes which take place from the beginning stages of reading to the stages of ultimate maturity.

### Apparatus and Method

Although the method of photographing eye-movements is not new, a brief explanation of the apparatus used may be of value to students of foreign language who are not familiar with the experimental literature relating to reading. The method consists of photographing a beam of light from a tungs-arc bulb reflected first to the cornea of the eye from silvered glass mirrors and then from the cornea through a camera lens to a moving kinetoscope film. The direction of the pencil of light is changed with each movement of the eye. While the subject reads, a photograph is made which records the horizontal movements of eye as a sharply focused line upon the film. An electrically driven tuning fork, with a vibration rate of twenty-five per second, is mounted in the path of the beam of light in such a manner that the beam of light is intercepted at each vibration. These vibrations produce on the film a series of dots rather than a solid line, each dot representing exactly one twenty-fifth of a second. Since the film moves continuously in a vertical direction, the record shows a vertical line of dots while the eye is fixated in a single position and a short horizontal or oblique line when the eye is in motion in a horizontal direction. Vertical movements of the eyes are lost.

The method makes possible an accurate record showing the position and duration of each fixation of the eye while the subject reads. The apparatus causes no discomfort to the reader and, after a brief trial period, apparently does not affect the normal character of the reading process. . . . An index of the degree of comprehension was obtained by securing answers to questions on those paragraphs which were standardized and by securing reproductions on a dictaphone for other paragraphs.

### Conclusions

(pp. 92–95) The data presented in the previous chapters warrant four major conclusions which may be stated briefly as follows:

(1) Judging from the maturity of a student's fundamental reading

habits which result from two years of study of French, there is no notable difference between students who begin the study of the language in high school and students who begin at the college level. On the same basis of judgment, children who begin the language in the elementary grades fall very much below the level of maturity of the high school and college students at the end of two years.

(2) The method of teaching a foreign language has a striking effect upon the reading habits of students. The maturity of reading which results from two years of study is decidedly greater with students taught by a direct method than with students taught by an indirect translation method.

(3) During equal periods of time, approximately equal degrees of maturity are reached in the study of French, German and Spanish when these languages are taught by similar methods and under similar conditions.

(4) In no case did the median student in a second-year group approach closely the maturity of reading habits exhibited by expert groups of readers.

Each of these four conclusions may be subjected to further analysis and interpretation.

### *Effect of Age*

In comparing students from elementary school, high school and college certain factors other than age must be considered. The median group intelligence quotients for the six groups of students concerned varied from 114 to 124, exhibiting a range of ten points. The highest median was for the second-year elementary-school group, while the lowest was for the second-year high-school group. However, considering the fact that the intelligence quotients were derived through group tests and considering further the range of chronological ages, the differences in the medians are not significant. All groups would be classified as superior groups. A factor of greater importance in this case is the unequal degree of mental maturity displayed by the different groups. The elementary pupils were equally bright but by no means equally mature in mental development. From the standpoint of the degree of mental maturity represented, the results attained by the elementary pupils might be considered satisfactory. This precipitates the administrative problem as to whether the results attained justify the time expended at this stage of maturity. The objective fact remains, however, that in a period of two years elementary pupils do not attain that degree of maturity in reading which is attained during a like period in approximately equal measure by high school and by college students.

One further fact should be pointed out here. In respect to maturity of reading simple material in the vernacular, the elementary pupils, regardless of their level of mental development, show approximately the same type of mature reading habits as is shown by the older groups. When they encounter a foreign language they attempt to carry over to it their basic habits of reading English. The argument is sometimes presented to the effect that it is better to approach the reading of French with a proper reading attitude even with unsuccessful results than to go to the other extreme of deciphering. This investigation has nothing to contribute to such an argument except the objective fact that where this was apparently done, a two-year period was not sufficiently long to produce a degree of maturity equal to that attained by the high-school and the college groups.

### *Effect of Method*

Teachers of both modern and classic languages have inherited a method of teaching which lays emphasis upon language structure and translation. The translation under this method was usually carried on with such a degree of analytical study that the process can be described as one of deciphering. The direct method of teaching represents a decided break from this older emphasis upon analysis and substitutes in its place an emphasis upon the type of mental activity which when applied to the vernacular is called reading. The psychological distinction between deciphering and reading can scarcely be overemphasized. The difference is clear-cut. When students read they are rapidly fusing the word symbols into consecutive thought units with no consideration of the words as such. It is only this process of comprehending meaning that can properly be designated as reading.

Students taught by a direct method attain in two years' study of a foreign language those fundamental habits which are characteristic of the person who reads. Students taught French by an indirect method attain these mature characteristics of reading in a much less degree. Students taught Latin by the indirect method exhibit these characteristics of reading in no degree at all; rather they exhibit in marked fashion the characteristics of the person who deciphers.

When the objective of teaching a foreign language is ability to read, a perfectly clear-cut choice of method is possible. A direct method produces desirable reading habits; a translation method does not. This seems to be equally true regardless of the type of language—as applicable to Latin as to French.

### *The Reading of Different Foreign Languages*

German is frequently said to be a more difficult language to read than French or Spanish. The results obtained in this study would lead one to minimize any such differences. Regardless of the structural differences in the three languages mentioned, the results obtained in two years of study are very similar. Furthermore, the processes of reading are similar, the more mature readers following the words in their serial order with few regressive movements regardless of the grammatical structure of the sentence. The process of making the necessary adjustments in order to fuse the words into their proper meaning is a central rather than a perceptual process.

Two years of studying Latin produced less mature reading habits than in the case of French and German. The explanation of this fact may be that the language is inherently more difficult or that the experiment in the direct method of teaching has simply not proceeded far enough to be as efficient as in the case of French and German where it has been tried longer.

### *Results of Two Years of Instruction*

The results secured in this investigation indicate that the middle half of a class either in high school or college does not, in two years' time, reach the level of final maturity in reading. Certain individuals in the groups studied did reach this degree of maturity at the end of two years, and in a very few cases, at the end of only one year. . . . However, the reading habits of the groups as a whole fall below those of the group of expert or mature readers by an amount which probably represents about a year of additional study, judging from the curves of progress which have been shown.

When the writer refers to the habits of the expert group, he uses the word "expert" only in contrast to the groups of students. The expert groups are expert only in the sense that they have made a complete adaptation to the demands of reading ordinary material. They are expert in the sense in which a fifth-grade pupil is expert in reading—in English,—he reads it rapidly and comprehends completely the meaning. Therefore, it is reasonable to set up as a goal in reading the type of adjustments made by the expert groups in this study. For the subjects used in this investigation, this degree of maturity was seldom reached in two years' time. This precipitates the question as to whether by a more careful selection of students and possible further revision of methods of teaching this goal might still be reached in two years. There are certain rather strong reasons which suggest that this would be entirely possible, providing foreign-language teachers deem it desirable to attempt such an objective in two years' time.

In securing the data presented in this report the writer employed the technique of the educational psychologist. However, as a psychologist, his obligation ceases when he has presented the data together with the interpretations which he is able to offer from the point of view of a student of mental processes. The way the data should be used is not a matter for him to discuss. The application of the facts presented must be left to the modern-language specialist, who will interpret them from the standpoint of the instructor of modern language and in the light of the desirable objectives approved by his own group.

## THE PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNDAMENTALS OF LINGUISTIC ACHIEVEMENT

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[From *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages,* V. A. C. Henmon *et al.,*
The Macmillan Company, N. Y., 1930, Chap. VII. P.A.C.C., Vol. V.
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(pp. 129–134) *The problem of "linguistic incapacity."*—For many years teachers of the foreign languages have spoken freely of "linguistic incapacity" as if it were as much a unitary fact as the lack of musical genius or of the normal memory span. They have spoken of it as a *missing talent* for which the one lacking it was as blameless as an individual with color-blind vision. A few years ago the writer's interest was aroused by the action of a committee in excusing a young man from the foreign language requirement on the ground that he lacked the "language sense." Nature had set the limit beyond which this learner could not be brought by any amount of hard work on his own account or patient teaching on the part of others, so that the only thing to be done was to tolerate him on the margin of the class or to excuse him altogether.

With this as the attitude of hundreds of teachers and a failure alibi of thousands of students, there intrudes a persistent factor operating toward a reduction in the level of modern language achievement. To the psychologist, seeking always the truth within his own field, this common sense opinion concerning a datum of psychology seems to demand scientific examination. Again and again it has been verified in the armchair fashion. It is indeed possible that the common sense view is largely referable to the unreserved "opinions" of men generally authoritative in the educational and psychological fields, but who have not subjected the problem to experimental test. They have merited attention because of some outstanding contribution in the past or because of their present position, and as a consequence, certain talented writers of the present are inclined to defer respectfully to them. But the attitude of the present generation of psychologists should be to accept nothing as true simply because the old masters in psychology assumed it to be so. If the humblest as well as the highest hesitated at the borderline of the unknown in psychology, a considerable reduction in the amount of bad psychology would be the result.

The scientific solution of the problems of so-called "linguistic incapacity" or failure to make proper progress in the mastery of a language is one of considerable difficulty. It is a problem of difficulty because the factors of capacity in language have never been satisfactorily isolated. The complexity of the basic neural mechanisms, with their unpredictable tendencies to vary, renders it impossible to segregate the single functional units and impossible for such units, if existent, to operate alone in a measureable way. The brain has always a certain amount of integrative activity, even when functioning in some more or less focal area. In memory there is a restimulation of specific cerebral neurone groups, but always more or fewer than were originally stimulated. Diffusions and blockages, psycho-somatic diffusions, emotional attachments sufficient to produce troublesome inhibitions and other implicit factors need to be taken into account. Given what appears as a sufficient stimulus, no trustworthy prediction can be made that the old neural units will be restimulated without variation. The cerebral mechanism operates in hierarchies multifariously bonded and most naturally liable to chance conditionings at the time of bonding or even at the moment of restimulation. Even the sensory equipment, which is unique in being originally bonded among the cerebral areas, cannot operate with repetitive precision or uniformity. The sensory unit is restimulated, but something else besides; about it secondary mechanisms are constantly elaborating. Consequently, no prior cerebral function can be adequately reproduced for exact measurement. Fortunately, however, in psychological science we can resort to certain fair substitutes for direct measurement, such as recurrent tendencies, the relative concomitants of two or more variable activities and the like. But strictly speaking, no human behavior can be represented in a definite quantitative amount; human behavior is properly expressed in terms of *tendencies* with their eccentricities approximately defined. Apparent differences are assumed to be real if they occur frequently enough and small differences are important if persistent. In view of these facts, it has been our aim to select data under uniform and controlled conditions so that variations in performance would be more properly ascribable to the subjects tested than to carelessness of technique. Let it be emphasized that great care is imperative, for *the only measurable thing on the cerebral level in human psychology is a tendency.*

*Various aspects of the problem.*—There appear to be three aspects to the problem of linguistic capacity or incapacity, so-called: (1) the logical; (2) the psychological, and (3) the experimental. The scientific analysis of the third can be undertaken only in the light of the other two. Certain theoretical assumptions must be made in advance to give proper ingress into the problem; in other words, the experimental approach must for the most part be made on a higher level than the pure trial-and-error one. In naming these three "aspects" of our problem there is no intention to convey the impression that they are in any manner separate and distinct aspects. The whole truth in any one category involves the other two.

*Logical aspects.*—Some of the more overt *logical aspects* of the problem are as follows: (1) Linguistic incapacity, if it existed, would be general and not special. Incapacity for learning a given language would be accompanied by incapacity in all languages. The idiot is linguistically incapable; he cannot talk because he cannot think and consequently is silent in all languages. The mute is incapable in oral language. The physiological basis of mutism is general to all spoken language.

(2) A "special talent" in one language would be accompanied by a special gift in any other language.

(3) Linguistic incapacity for a foreign language would be accompanied by a relative incapacity in one's native tongue. In view of this apparent logical fact, the student who is apt in the English language could be approximately apt in a foreign language, all other things being equal. The student who claims that he cannot learn Latin contradicts his claim by his mastery of English. That he is not mastering Latin is not sufficient evidence that he could not.

(4) Another aspect of the problem, when examined from the logical standpoint, is that language capacity—as distinguished from ability or skill—would be native, and like hair color, a unit-characteristic handed down from generation to generation according to the Mendelian law

and subject to modification only through chance variation. This is in fact the common sense view previously referred to.

*Psychological aspects.*—Outstanding among *the psychological aspects* of the problem are the following: (1) Language is the medium for the interchange of concepts and is basically a cerebro-vocal process. This is seen in thought and the expression of thought. It is to be doubted that thought can be purely cerebral. The behaviorist, at least, does well in emphasizing the vocalizing activities or vestigial tendencies (subvocal dispositions) in thinking. The young child in mastering his native language and the student in thinking and speaking a "foreign" language is greatly guided by these "ideo-motor" tendencies. In the beginning they predominate in the attempts to think in the new language, but with motor automatization they gradually sublimate. Thus, thought-content and oral expression are not absolutely inseparable.

(2) Language is basically a *form* and not a thing. It is universal, consisting of complexes of substantitive, transitive, temporal, relational *terms of reference* that express the various situations in which an individual may find himself. *Man, der Mann, homo* are different terms of reference for the same formal object; the term of reference, or the thing, is not the real element of the given language. Goodness as a term is a thing; but beyond it is the formal, non-perceptual set of purely qualitative terms of reference.

(3) Unusual linguistic aptitude would be correlated with some unusual "readiness" of the cerebro-vocal apparatus and conversely linguistic incapacity would be referrable to a defective cerebro-vocal mechanism. A well-known fact is that a low level of intelligence is accompanied by poor language ability. Twenty-five years ago, Binet defined the three levels of intelligence in terms of language capacity. The idiot was one who could not speak a language; the imbecile, one who could speak but not read or write a language; and the moron, one who could speak and write his language in a meagre way. In the present investigation we find that language ability correlates highly with general intelligence, and Professor Warren points out that the level of thinking is raised directly with the enlargement of vocabulary.[1]

(4) Another psychological consideration is that a good part of linguistic "incapacity" is only apparent, not real. May we not assume that, where the same cerebral mechanisms are involved, ability in one line would be accompanied by a proportional amount of ability in other lines? May we not assume this if the learner works with proportionate amounts of *application* and *interest* in each and is equally well *prepared* in all? Failure to take these things into consideration is one of the causes

of the popular misinterpretation of this question. May we not assume that the boy who approaches Latin or French with the same amount of preparation and who pursues them with the same amount of interest and application he evinces toward mathematics will do equally well in all? But he is likely to have a richer preparation in mathematics than for Latin or French and consequently is able to pursue mathematics with greater interest and application. Hence his "incapacity" for Latin or French.

(5) Considerable weight should be given the fact that the present foreign language learning situation is distinctly unnatural. One begins the learning of his native language of necessity, starting at the early age of one, but usually does not need the foreign language when he takes it up and is adolescent before he begins. Every hour of the day he may use his native language to further his aims or to satisfy his needs, so that the foreign language seems to him an impingement upon a perfectly satisfactory native vocabulary. Contrast with this *natural* method of language evolution our instructional plan of swift, short, concentrated and formal lessons according to an appointed schedule—more or less because of administrative necessity, certainly—and the result is unfavorable to our instructional plan. We are attempting to accomplish within two or four years by prescribed assignments what the student has accomplished for himself in fourteen years. With full consideration of these facts, we begin to realize that the student showing meagre progress is not approaching the limit of his *capacity* so much as the limit of his ability to show progress under an unnatural scheme of instruction.

(6) Finally, it should be pointed out that the entire psychology of adolescence is a major and persistent aspect of the foreign language situation. Some of its features, certainly, have been incorporated in the above points, but the whole problem is too complex to incorporate entire within this study. We shall mention as distinctly relevant here the fact that the adolescent is predominantly utilitarian and hedonistic in action and ambition. He is only generally idealistic or at best egocentrically idealistic. His achievements are conditioned always by a general attitude revealing itself as a sincere inclination to challenge every imposed situation with respect to its usefulness. On this basis he seriously challenges his studies for the first time, the institutions about him and the current conventions. More particularly now than ever before or than will be the case in adulthood, he contemplates his life situations from the hedonistic standpoint. He is anxious about the amount of pleasure to be derived from any imposed or contemplated task or action. These are universally natural facts to be recognized and to be considered as im-

portant factors in the complexities conditioning the achievement of the secondary school pupil.

*Experimental aspects: organization of this experiment.*—As was stated earlier in this study, ***the experimental phase*** of our problem is forecast by its logical and psychological phases. The best that can be done is to posit certain assumptions in the light of these and to test them out carefully by controlled experiment. Much, of course, hinges upon these assumptions. In the present instance, the examination of the factors fundamental to language achievement, the problem is so complex and so much involved with other factors—factors without the realm of exact measurement—that a general difficulty is inherited along with the specific hardships of the problem. Nevertheless, there is hope of solution if we can determine some of the functions or capacities that appear to possess a relative variation with variations of performance in language; that appear to fluctuate up or down a scale of values with some quantitative expression of language accomplishment. The functions selected for examination in this study are but a few of the possible ones and were chosen because of the suspicion that they would function in a distinctive and measurable way in the mastery of the general forms of all languages. Others are of importance but cannot be treated in this paper. For example, individual general education preparation, individual temperamental traits, motivations, relative level of maturity or physiological age, type of instruction and the amount of individual effort put into the language are distinct subsidiary topics which should be taken into consideration somewhere. The ideal and complete survey of our problem should include the various phases of the capacity ***to acquire, to retain and revive*** the formal elements of a language in terms of the time of learning, length of the period of retention and facility of recall.

## NOTE

1. Howard C. Warren, *The Elements of Human Psychology*, Houghton, Mifflin Co., N. Y., 1922, p. 300: ". . . The growth of thought depends upon the existence of words. If the vocabulary of a community is scanty, the range of thought is limited. Given a rich vocabulary, the mentally well developed individuals in the community quickly attain a wide range of thought."

# ON THE LEARNING OF RULES IN THE STUDY OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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The facts of the teaching and learning of rules about a foreign language are not entirely clear, being clouded by the numerous exceptions and by the fact, that, in any actual understanding or use of a sentence or phrase, the pupil so often requires the co-operation of two or more rules. Teachers with enough experience and enough interest and insight concerning the learning process probably have sound intuitions about what is hard to learn and why, and how much practice is required, and of what sort it should be, and what means should be taken to protect students against certain errors. But they have found it difficult to codify their intuitions in ways that are adequate to give others the full benefit of them, and perhaps it is impossible for anyone to do this. The psychologist who tries to plan the teaching of rules for Latin or German or French is discouraged by the complexity of the task.

It seems possible therefore that the facts in the case of the learning of rules which are extremely simple and entirely devoid of exceptions may be instructive. I have had an opportunity to observe these in connection with experiments on the learning of Esperanto, made with the cooperation of the International Auxiliary Language Association by Mrs. Lydia McKnight and Dr. Laura H. V. Kennon.

Seventy-eight students at the college level spent 7½ hours in study and testing, all prescribed, alike for all, and done under uniform conditions. Two and a half hours were spent in learning rules of grammar, the numerals, and certain common prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns, 1 hour in learning vocabularies (of rather rare words), 3 hours in learning to operate the Esperanto system of affixes, and 1 hour and 5 minutes in learning the so-called correlatives shown below.[1] Suitable written tests were given from time to time and at the end of the series. There was no hearing, reading or speaking save that arranged for in the study periods. The study was spread over 4½ weeks (from March 1–March 29); the tests at the end were given on June 5 and 6, except the test on correlatives, which was given on April 3.

The first fact to note is that the effect of studying any rules fell off greatly with time in spite of certain reinforcement which the later exercises provided. For example, a general grammar test given on March 1 after only 20 minutes of study resulted in much higher scores than the same test given on June 6, although there had been 3½ hours of study more or less valuable for that test in the interval. We are all familiar with the extreme susceptibility of working knowledge of rules to oblivescence, but we have not known how much of it was essential and how much was due to later exceptions, complications and confusions. In Esperanto there are no exceptions and very few complications. The correlatives are confusing, but in our experiment all the confusions were introduced at the start.

I think we must reckon with an essential repugnance of the mind to such rules. In Esperanto all that the student has to learn about nouns is that they are formed by adding *o* to the root (*oj* for the plural), and that when one is the direct object of a verb or of a preposition signifying motion toward, *n* is added. There are no interfering uses of *o*, *j*, and *n*. But to remember that to make a noun you use *o* is not guaranteed; to remember that to make a plural you use *j* is hard; and to remember that for the direct object you use *n* is a result attained by very few.

We are all familiar with the transfer of rules to cases not subject to them. But in learning natural languages such transfers are often stimulated by being an easy course. The correct treatment of the case may require the selection and application of rules or habits which the student has no mastery of, so that a certain inertia favors the misapplication of some familiar rules or usage. Our experiment shows that beneath this tendency to follow the path of least resistance there is a fundamental general tendency to apply a rule or usage learned for certain words to all words sufficiently like them. For example the Esperanto article *la* is undeclined, just like the English *the*. The easiest and most natural rendering of *the* is then *la*. Yet we have *laj* by transfer from the plural of nouns and adjectives as a fairly frequent error. We also have as plurals *las* and *les*, probably by transfer from other languages.

When no other tendency is stronger, a learner will naturally use the habits of his vernacular. Many of the techniques of teaching foreign languages have the function of keeping this tendency neutral or reducing its antagonistic activities. The matter is certainly of very great importance. Repetition and reward through all his life so far have made the connections leading from meanings to vernacular expressions and from these to meanings very strong. Although the mind recognizes that they do not belong in the foreign language system and shunts them off, they are ready to creep in whenever there is a chance. So we find *s* occasionally added to make plurals, though in Esperanto *as*, *is*, and *os* are the uniform endings for present, past and future and the plural is always denoted by *j*. So we find 'he is to sleep' in 'Say that he is to sleep,' for which 'li dormu' (he ought to sleep) is correct, translated as li estas dormi (estas= is or are and i=the infinitive in Esperanto), by about a third of even the mature and able group of our experiment.

Any teacher who has recorded the responses in a test in reading or writing a foreign language for several hundred students or who has kept a record of mistakes in his own classes for eight or ten years should realize their bewildering variety. There is a common opinion among teachers that many of these are perverse follies of dull minds. It is more useful to regard them as perfectly natural consequences of mental forces. We should expect for example that, unless some contrary force prevents, a substantial percentage of students will use the correct endings but in the wrong order, writing *nj* instead of *jn* for the plural accusative. Unless some contrary force prevents, an appreciable percentage will form a noun correctly by adding *j*, and then add *o* again.

A sound psychology requires us to expect that every response that has been made to any problem in translating English will have some slight tendency to be made to every other problem that resembles it in any way. In ordinary language teaching these tendencies are restrained because we progress slowly, and try to avoid practice in error by attaining a certain mastery of one usage before introducing another. In our experiment, where we presented the entire grammar of a language in three or four hours, there is much more opportunity for them to display themselves.

They do. Adjectives should be uniformly made by adding *a* to roots, adverbs by adding *e*, nouns by adding *o*, and infinitives by adding *i*. The task being "Ornami means *to ornament*. What means *ornamental?*", we have the following incorrect responses in fifty individuals taken at random (June test): *ornam*, *ornamado*, *ornamenta* (3), *ornamia* (4), *ornamial*, *ornamir*, *ornamius* (2), and *orno*. The list would have been increased further if the fourteen who failed to respond had been forced to do so. Remember, too, that these are mature and able minds.

The task being "What means ornamentally?", we have *ornam* plus *a*, *ente* (2), *i* (3), *ia* (2), *ie*, *o*, and no ending, and 24 omissions of response, in our 50.

The active participles are formed by *anta*, *onta*, and *inta*, the corresponding passives being *ata*, *ota*, and *ita*. The task being "Dormi means to sleep. What means sleeping?", (June test), we find in the 26 out of the 50 who did not omit it, *dorm* plus the following: *a, ado, ant* (3), *anista, antan, anti* (3), *as* (4), *ido, ilo, io, ista,* and *ita.*

Confusions of like-sounding words and endings are a notable hindrance to learning. Among whole words, the short ones suffer especially from this. The Esperanto pronouns and prepositions (*mi, ni, vi, li, si, gi, al, de, da, etc.*) offer good opportunities for experiment but our material is too scant.

Much of language is presentable in more or less complete systems with observable affinities, as in the case of English *this, that, then, there, who, which, what, when, where,* or of any Latin declension. The educational psychology of such linguistic systems is interesting, since the possibilities of making the maximal use of the reinforcing features of such a system with a minimum of hindrance from its confusing features have not been carefully explored. In ordinary languages the exploration would be very difficult because the systems vary so much in regularity and completeness and are so complicated in operation by contextual factors.

The Esperanto system of correlatives is much freer from these difficulties. It also presents both the facilitating and confusing features in extreme form. Each of the forty-five words fortifies the other by representing the essentials of the system. The *a, al, am, ie, iel, ies, io, iom, iu, k,* and *t,* features are especially subject to confusion by their brevity and their visual and auditory similarities.

It should be noted first that, in general, these words are rather easily learned and well remembered. The reinforcement from the logical use of *i* plus the nine suffixes and four prefixes is substantial. We are here concerned not with its general merit, but with its particular operations.

In reading, the *i* and *ti* words are confused much more with each other than with the *ci, ki* and *neni* words, the indefinite and demonstrative ideas being harder to keep distinct and connect with their symbols than the idea of all, or that of the relative-interrogative function, and of negation, and the *ci* and *neni* being easily distinguishable from *i, ti* and *ki.* The question mark also helps in many sentences containing *ki* words. *Neni* words are confused almost never save inter se.

The *a, al* and *el* forms show very frequent confusions, such as *ia* with *iel, cial* with *ciel.* The *es* forms show very little. The *a, al,* and *el* confusions are probably due chiefly to the similarity of the forms, since reason or motive is a notion specially hard to keep in mind and distinguish from quality and manner. If the *ial* forms had been *ialde, cialde, kialde, nenialde,* and *tialde,* or *ialpe, cialpe,* etc., the confusions would doubtless have been fewer. The *es* forms are not highly distinguishable, but the notion of possession is, and its frequent symbolization by the apostrophe helps in tests of the multiple-choice type.

Taking the Esperanto as it is, a teacher would surely do well to develop definite and emphatic distinctions between the meanings of the *i* and *ti* series and between the forms of the *a, al* and *el* series. The names 'indefinite' and 'demonstrative' are very feeble means of distinction for the former.

What is evident in this case is true also for similar systems in other languages. Practice in error results if we do not develop distinct and emphatic notions of the confusable facts which forms express, and distinct and emphatic perceptions and motor equivalents of confusable forms.

There is one more general observation made in the course of our experiment which is perhaps worth recording. The study and test exercises were prepared with the intention of having excellent instruments for learning. Except for that, the experiments were conducted for the purpose of giving us knowledge about learning, not of helping the students to learn. The study exercises which were designed to be beneficial as accompaniments to much less formal work in reading, hearing and speaking, were given as isolated tasks. The tests were not scored at the time and returned so that the students got much less benefit from them than they might have. No student received any special attention or differential treatment.

Nevertheless the progress made was not far below that made by a group of students of about the same intellectual status and spending the same amount of time who were taught in small sections by the best methods a very skilful teacher could devise. Apparently if things well worth learning are arranged for convenient learning and if students work hard to learn them (as was the case with our group), the result will approximate that obtained by good personal teaching. Perhaps the instruments of instruction are of more importance than the methods of presentation, provided that learners work equally. It would not be hard to vary the text-books, etc., while keeping the teacher constant, and to vary the teachers while keeping the instruments of instruction constant, and so measure the relative importance of instruments and persons for any given study. Superiority in instruments has the merit of costing only a trifling fraction of what superior teaching or small classes costs.

1. The Esperanto correlatives are as follows:

| | A.<br>Indefinite | B.<br>Distributive, General or Collective | C.<br>Interrogative and Relative | D.<br>Negative | E.<br>Demonstrative |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Quality | some IA<br>kind of | ĈIA<br>every | KIA<br>what a! | NENIA<br>no such | TIA<br>such a |
| 2. Motive | IAL<br>for some reason | ĈIAL<br>for every reason | KIAL<br>why? | NENIAL<br>for no reason | TIAL<br>therefore |
| 3. Time | IAM<br>ever | ĈIAM<br>always | KIAM<br>when | NENIAM<br>never | TIAM<br>then |
| 4. Place | IE<br>somewhere | ĈIE<br>everywhere | KIE<br>where | NENIE<br>nowhere | TIE<br>there |
| 5. Manner | IEL<br>somehow | ĈIEL<br>every way | KIEL<br>how? | NENIEL<br>nohow | TIEL<br>thus |
| 6. Possession | IES<br>somebody's | ĈIES<br>everyone's | KIES<br>whose | NENIES<br>no one's | TIES<br>that one's |
| 7. Thing | IO<br>something | ĈIO<br>everything | KIO<br>what | NENIO<br>nothing | TIO<br>that |
| 8. Quantity | IOM<br>somewhat | ĈIOM<br>all | KIOM<br>how much | NENIOM<br>none | TIOM<br>so much |
| 9. Individuality | IU<br>some one | ĈIU<br>each | KIU<br>who | NENIU<br>nobody | TIU<br>the former |

# THE CONTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY TO MASTERY OF THE VERNACULAR

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For at least fifty years nearly every statement of the objectives of instruction in modern foreign languages has mentioned their contribution to the student's mastery of English. In 1895 Schilling stated categorically that "the value of the study of foreign languages in leading the pupil to a better understanding and a more thorough mastery of his vernacular is universally recognized."[1] The *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* first published in 1900,[2] makes incidental reference to the benefits accruing to the student's English through his study of a modern foreign language in such manner as to suggest that these gains may be taken for granted. Somewhat more recently various specialists outside the modern language field who have investigated the place and function of foreign languages in the curriculum have reached the same conclusions. Bobbitt, for instance, lists as the fifth and last objective of foreign language study "a certain degree of furtherance of language abilities in general, including that of the mother tongue, through the extension and diversification of language experience."[3] Reduced from the professional jargon to simple English, this is probably what Leavitt and Stoudemire meant by "better understanding and appreciation of the English language," the seventh of nine objectives which they found to appear most frequently in modern language bulletins issued by twenty-two states.[4] The Coleman report lists, as the fifth of sixteen "ultimate objectives" of foreign language study, "the increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English."[5]

Handschin, Cole, B. Q. Morgan and many others have long insisted upon the contribution to the student's mastery of English made by his study of a foreign language. Keniston's recent statement to this effect might well be quoted here:

> It has been the experience of centuries, and it is no less true today, that the understanding of one's own native language is greatly enriched by the study of other languages. The reasons are many. First of all, such a study provides a perspective, by offering comparisons of identity or divergence of expression. It awakens the mind to a consciousness of distinctions in meaning made possible by differences in form or function; it sharpens the sense of values in word meanings through associations with foreign cognates; it encourages a more precise and careful articulation in speech by providing a basis of comparison with other tongues. The foreign language teacher is the chief ally of the teacher of English.[6]

It would seem, then, that there is a surprising unanimity of opinion to the effect that the study of a foreign language does, in some way or another, improve the student's English. The foreign language teachers point to the fact with pride; administrators and educational specialists seem inclined to agree, if only tentatively; the students themselves admit, when pressed, that they have learned their English grammar, at least, through the foreign language, and perhaps that they have acquired some of their most impressive polysyllables through the same source; even teachers of English are sometimes willing to give corroborative though impressionistic evidence.

Furthermore, the records of students entering universities where an elaborate battery of entrance examinations is given would seem, at first glance, to add further evidence of a gratifying nature. Students entering with seven years of foreign language credit make higher scores on their English tests than those students who present only six years of language credit, and so on down the line to those who enter with only two years of high school Spanish, whose knowledge of English is almost invariably little more than—shall we say?—rudimentary. Unfortunately for our thesis, namely, that the study of foreign languages contributes appreciably to the mastery of one's maternal tongue, the scores of the entrance examinations in English are almost without exception as closely correlated with the intelligence quotient as with the number of credits in foreign languages. The question therefore seems to be: Do the brighter students take more language work, or does taking more language work make them so? Both modesty and objectivity, not to mention common sense, prevent us from coming to the latter conclusion.

I should be much surprised to find any considerable number of our colleagues who were not unalterably convinced that in teaching a foreign language they were also contributing materially and demonstrably to "an increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English" on the part of their students. Yet a significant number of ingenious attempts to prove objectively what we all believe so firmly have yielded unconvincing if not frankly negative results.

Let us examine some of the evidence presented in the last thirty years—that is to say, during precisely the period in which various authorities, committees and surveys have assured us repeatedly that we were teaching English as well as the foreign language.

In 1911, Gray sounded a warning that much of what passed as translation was couched in such miserable English that the instructor was doing the student a disservice in not insisting upon accuracy and elegance in the use of the vernacular.[7] Evidently mere exposure to a foreign language did not improve the student's English automatically.

Two years later McKee concluded that only a slight increase in the quality of work in English was to be discerned as the total amount of foreign language training increased.[8]

Starch's investigations in 1915 led to the conclusion that "the study of foreign languages materially increases a pupil's knowledge of English grammar but only slightly increases his ability in the correct usage of the English language," and further, that "the argument often advanced for the study of foreign languages and particularly Latin, that they are a great aid in the use and comprehension of English, is unfounded."[9] Two years later Starch concluded, from still more extensive experimental data, that ability in English composition is almost entirely due to original ability and only in a negligible degree to training in foreign languages.[10]

In reviewing Epstein's *La Pensée et la Polyglossie,* Lentz agrees with the author that foreign language study actually sets up interference which exerts a harmful influence upon precision and clarity of thought in the vernacular, and gives statistical evidence in support of the point made.[11]

The results of several investigations resumed in the *Report of the Classical Investigation* showed that in some instances Latin students gained, relatively to non-Latin students, more in spelling of Latin derivatives, in ability to use grammatically correct English and to state governing principles, and in ability to read English. Nevertheless, there was such a wide fluctuation in gain as to indicate that improvement was not automatic, but bore a close relationship to course-content and method, as well as to English study proper.[12]

Werner's investigation of the improvement in English made by a limited number of students showed a slight relative gain in ability to read rapidly and comprehendingly, and in knowledge of English grammar, but a relative loss in punctuation and in recognition of faulty English sentences.[13]

The results of Jack's investigations at the University of Pennsylvania, the purpose of which was to discover the relationship between ignorance of English grammar and lack of success in foreign languages, are somewhat irrelevant to our present subject. Nevertheless it was shown that students with a year or more of a foreign language were apt to know more about English grammar than those without such training.[14]

The Price-Thompson-Richards study of French translations tends merely to confirm the general impression that the quality of translation English presented in classroom exercises is too low to support a claim of benefit to English composition from this source.[15]

Woody's experiment at the University of Michigan attempted to discover whether or not first year students of French increased their knowledge of English words derived from the French more rapidly than other groups. Apparently the No-Language group made the greatest gain in the understanding of both the French and the non-French derivatives, with the Beginning-Latin and the Beginning-French groups next in order.[16]

A number of other investigations, wholly or partially relevant, might be cited, but in general the conclusions to be drawn from experimental data are largely negative and almost completely at variance with what every teacher of languages, ancient and modern, believes implicitly.

Why should the objective evidence contradict the considered opinion of the large majority of competent observers?

In the first place, none of the investigations has been carried out with a large enough number of students, over a long enough time, and in enough different places to be entirely conclusive. In the second place, the organization of the battery of tests has in nearly every case left a good deal to be desired. In the third place, the proper analysis of the results obtained demands an exceedingly complicated differentiation according to age, sex, intelligence quotient, and previous linguistic training both in the foreign languages and in the vernacular. Furthermore, the wide variety of cultural background and of secondary school training, the enormous differences in educational experience in the university due to a very free elective system and a highly individualized faculty, the great variations in discipline, stimuli, amounts and types and methods of course work from department to department and from instructor to instructor, introduce so many elements for which differentiation has to be made as to render statistical analysis of any validity extremely difficult.

Is there any use in continuing investigation of the problem when previous experiments have yielded only inconclusive, even negative results? Is there any gain in proving objectively what we think we already know, statistics to the contrary notwithstanding? I am convinced there is.

In the first place, in such times as these, our insistence on modern foreign languages as a means of communication with foreigners becomes a little less convincing. Foreign travel has stopped. But the radio? Isn't it now possible that we may attract customers by promising to develop their ability to understand foreign broadcasts? Useful as these may be in stimulating interest and in developing aural skill, it seems unlikely that the ability to understand them will prove an adequate initial incentive to foreign language study. The Gallup Poll tells us that we are somewhat isolationistic, and student polls are even more categorical: friend or enemy, we'll have nothing to do with them! As for foreign broadcasts, the air is flooded with propaganda, so we might just as well listen to our own CBS and NBC correspondents telling what little they are allowed to in a language that we can understand. Furthermore, why learn to speak to the natives when there may not be any to talk to—unless we know Russian—when a ghastly quiet finally settles over what is left of Western Europe?

Needless to say, none of us believes this for a moment, but some of our students and colleagues think it, sometimes even say it. Nor should this be any particular occasion for alarm. No matter what happens in Europe or in America we shall very probably continue to learn to read and write and speak French, German, Spanish and Italian for generations. Nevertheless, one does not have to be suffering from a persecution complex to believe that "foreign languages are under fire, their place in the high school [and elsewhere] disputed, their educational value questioned, their very existence in American education threatened." [17] It may be that we ourselves are in part at least to blame. It may be that we are not as realistic as idealistic when we lay great stress on the ability to write a foreign language when few of us have foreign correspondents to communicate with; on the ability to speak when the time and opportunity to develop a decent proficiency are lacking, and when only a pitifully small percentage of those who do acquire this ability find occasion to use it before it has dropped into the limbo of forgotten skills; on the development of a laudable but vague and wishful internationalism. The point I wish to emphasize is that this is a particularly opportune time to stress the contribution to the mastery of the vernacular made by foreign language study.

Perhaps also this is a peculiarly fitting moment to take up the distasteful appellation of "tool subject" and wear it as a badge of honor. I think we would all agree that something is wrong with our students' English. It has been pointed out, and probably with some justification, that the only "university man" in the civilized world who does not talk or write like one is the American. Does it not lie within the province of the *Sprachmeister*—and we are that as well as other things—to correct this deficiency? Perhaps a more conscious and consistent effort to do what we think we are doing, albeit incidentally, might produce more tangible (or, should we say, audible) results, which in turn might elicit both recognition and gratitude from our colleagues—even in the sciences, the social sciences and education.

In the second place, we should continue our efforts to prove objectively whether we are improving the student's English, so that we may adapt our methods to this end if our present efforts in this direction are ineffective.

Remarks on the interpretation of the negative or inconclusive results obtained in the investigations which I have cited above provide a number of valuable clues as to how our methods might be revised, how our efforts might be directed more effectively to the desired end.

It would appear that students of Latin tend to acquire, on the whole, a greater mastery of English than do students of modern foreign languages in spite of the fact that of the ten thousand words in Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book,* 41% are derived from the French, 37% from Teutonic roots, and only 14% from the Latin.[18]

Perhaps this is because Latin teachers, as a result of the findings of the Classical Investigation, are now laying especial stress on exercises designed to develop this ultimate or incidental objective. A comparison of some of the more recent secondary school texts with the older ones certainly seems to bear this out. Perhaps the daily insistence upon accurate and idiomatic translation develops the student's linguistic ability. Perhaps the fact that the study of Latin does not involve a considerable expenditure of time on aural-oral training provides opportunity for the development of this desirable "by-product."

I am convinced, though again without objective evidence, that the aural-oral training which a modern foreign language requires increases the student's consciousness of his own and others' speech defects.[19] On the other hand, the tendency of teachers of modern foreign languages to avoid the use of English in the classroom materially reduces the opportunity to extend and sharpen the student's knowledge of his mother tongue. Haste in developing a "tool knowledge" of the modern language, i. e., the ability "to get the sense," without the corrective of intensive and exacting digestion of the material "covered" is quite certain to retard acquisition of a mastery of the vernacular. The frequent incidence of cognates and near cognates, many of which are quite deceptive, provides such an easy path to approximate meanings that the student is given a false sense of comprehension, and rarely experiences either the need or the desire to sharpen his evaluation of the object or idea represented by the printed word.

Let me quote at this point a particularly cogent paragraph from the Coleman report:[20]

> We may fairly conclude, therefore, with the considerable number of teachers who voted on improvement in knowledge of English as an objective, that it is desirable and attainable, but that our claims on this score may well be more modestly stated and that modern language teaching will certainly not yield its full quota of profit in this regard if we are content to record the objective on our list and to consider the attainment of it as an automatic by-product of modern language study. If improvement in the knowledge of English is a desirable and valid objective for modern language classes, means must be devised by which this aim may be realized and some account must be kept of progress in the right direction. . . .

This seems to bring us to a brief consideration of precisely what means may be devised in order to realize dividends in mastery of the vernacular from time and effort invested in the study of a foreign language.

Much as it may gall us to admit that our elders in the business of language teaching have anything to offer, let us turn to some of the more enlightened, some of the more modern (I avoid the term progressive with a capital P advisedly) teachers of Latin, and particularly those in secondary schools. Their emphasis on roots and prefixes and suffixes, on derivations and related words, on function and nomenclature of parts of speech, on structural relationship between the parts of the sentence, on word building, on synonyms and antonyms, on historical changes of meaning, serves to focus attention almost equally on the two languages. They are consciously and avowedly building two separate but closely related skills.

On several occasions in the past few years I have been fortunate in having the opportunity to learn at first hand something of English instruction in a number of representative French lycées. The most striking difference between the attitude of the instructor in English there, and the instructor of French here, was the Frenchman's insistence, in almost every case, that he was really teaching French as well as English. The famous "thème et version" method is in fact admirably adapted to attaining this double objective. There was, to be sure, a certain amount of "getting the sense" of rather stiff assignments, and also a good deal of reading and speaking the foreign language in the classroom for the sake of aural-oral practice, but the classroom work seemed to be devoted for the most part to the most exacting translation of words and phrases from one language to the other; to the definition of exact equivalents and connotations, to the differentiation between the formal and the familiar; to the discussion and enumeration of antonyms and synonyms in both languages; to the formation of various parts of speech from the same root, again in both languages. The formal translation was of two sorts, rarely a mere rendering of a set of sentences prepared for that purpose—the "my friend's uncle's wife is sitting in the garden with a red hat on" sort of thing—but rather an exacting translation of some standard English author into as nearly impeccable French as possible, and then the reverse, namely the translation of a passage drawn from a standard French author into accurate and idiomatic English. And lastly, there was a certain amount of free composition in the foreign language. With the possible exception of this last named type of work, it was apparent that a large proportion of the effort lay in the direction of extending and deepening and sharpening the student's knowledge of his own language.

The negative conclusions drawn from the various investigations cited above, and the observable but uncontrolled positive results obtained by methods employed in certain of our own secondary school Latin classes and in foreign language classes abroad, seem to point in the same direc-

**tion, namely, that to insure appreciable benefit to the student's mastery of English through a study of a foreign language, this aim must be a conscious one, and methods to attain it must be devised and introduced deliberately. Whatever the automatic gain may be, and I am still convinced that it exists to a certain degree, it is neither apparent nor appreciable enough to constitute a strong and unanswerable defense of foreign language study on this score.**

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## NOTES

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15. W. R. Price, H. G. Thompson, E. B. Richards, "Translation English," *School and Society,* XXIII (1926), 51–56. Cf. Gray, *op. cit.*

16. Clifford Woody, "The Influence of the Teaching of First Year French on

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17. B. Q. Morgan, "A Program for the High-School Teacher," *Modern Language Journal*, xxii (1937), 420–421; see also a similar statement by the late F. Courtney Tarr, "Our Modern Foreign Language Trinity: Language, Literature, Civilization," *Modern Language Journal*, xxii (1937), 265–273.

18. H. M. Eddy, "The French Element in English," *Modern Language Journal*, x (1926), 271–280.

19. Cf. Mildren Dean, "Correction of Enunciation by the Study of Foreign Language," *School and Society*, xxxvii (1933), 359–360.

20. Coleman, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

# GESTALT IN LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

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I propose in what follows to point out the psychological principle that underlies most of the newer pedagogical practice in foreign languages. It is a principle that is attracting more and more attention among psychologists and by many of them is regarded as of revolutionary importance.

The Gestalt idea in psychology is not new. You will find very distinct traces of it in "The Principles of Psychology," by W. James, published in 1890. Gouin certainly had a clear conception of Gestalt as applied to foreign languages. The profound significance of the idea began to dawn upon psychologists about twenty years ago, especially in the work of Wertheimer, Köhler and Koffka in Germany. Since then it has attracted a growing number of adherents, some of them enthusiastically militant. The militancy of the Gestaltists is aimed particularly against the associationist schools of psychology and it is to the associationists that the long sterility of foreign language pedagogy is mainly due.

The associationist assumes that the German word "Tisch," for example, and the English word "table" are linked up in the brain, so that when "Tisch" is heard, seen, or thought, "table" is pulled into consciousness along with it. The Latin word "urbs" drags along the English word "city," and vice versa. Brain cells, neurones, and synapses constitute the machinery for this interesting phenomenon. An infinitely complex network of cells and nerve-threads were supposed to account for the association of ideas or the linkage of memories.

Language pedagogues of this school have labored under the delusion that it is possible to construct a language from the parts into which it has been analyzed. Given a lot of nouns, verbs, and lesser parts of speech, a complete set of grammatical rules, "principal parts," conjugations, and declensions, with a judiciously selected set of idioms, the language expert was prepared to perform. Endless failure has not served to convince these idealists that their hopes are futile. This miracle cannot be performed.

No organized whole can be constructed and made to function by joining together the parts into which it has been dissected. The elements derive their life from the whole. Words get their meanings from the intention of the speaker, from the sentence. This has been admirably expressed by Bertrand Russell (in "The Analysis of Mind," p. 197).

"Understanding a language is more like understanding cricket: it is a matter of habits, acquired in one's self and rightly presumed in others. To say that a word has a meaning is not to say that those who use it correctly have ever thought out what the meaning is; the use of the word comes first, and the meaning is to be distilled out of it by observation and analysis. Moreover, the meaning of a word is not absolutely definite; there is always a greater or less degree of vagueness. The meaning is an area, like a target; it may have a bull's-eye, but the outlying parts of the target are still more or less within the meaning in a gradually diminishing degree as we travel further from the bull's-eye. As language grows more precise, there is less and less of the target outside the bull's-eye, and the bull's-eye itself grows smaller and smaller; but the bull's-eye never shrinks to a point and there is always a doubtful region, however small, surrounding it."

The system of the associationists has been aptly characterized as "neurological tautology"—one says the same thing with neurones, synapses and cells that one has already said in linguistic terms, namely, that "stella" *means* "star," that "Tisch" *means* "table." The associationist merely locates the word somewhere in the brain and joins it by means of an infinite number of neural threads to other spots in the brain.

Telegraph wires were a novelty when associationist psychology was developed, but now that radio is a commonplace, there is a growing feeling that wires may not be so essential as was formerly assumed for learning and remembering.

Gestalt psychology abandons this neurological tautology. It affirms that in perception the mind does not build up wholes out of elements, but grasps wholes, Gestalts, configurations primarily. These, then, are often analyzed into simpler elements. One knows a melody without being aware of the notes of which it is composed. The same note sounds different in different melodies. Words get their precise meaning from the context. Outside a particular context meanings are uncertain. The parts are remembered by reason of their place in the configuration.

The Gestalt idea has received its most striking and authoritative expression at the hands of biologists. "Every organism is a unity in itself and the elements which compose it are in the first place a part of the whole, deriving their full value not from themselves, but from the individual to which they belong. The individual, the organism as a whole, dominates the cells which compose it." (Böcke: "The Innervation of Striped Muscle Fibres," 1921; quoted by Irwin in *Psychological Review*, March, 1932.)

Foreign language text-books have nibbled at the Gestalt idea, but none have yet boldly grasped it or developed lessons on that basis. We have, for example, in one book a lesson introduced by a Gouin series, but nothing more is done with the series, which gets lost amidst a *mélange* of unrelated exercises.

Again, we have a lesson headed with a reading selection occupying as much as a page or more. It is impossible for the pupil to grasp so long a selection as a unit. Questions on the story follow, many of which compel the student to go back to the text for the answers. This is an abandonment of the Gestalt idea.

Or we have a lesson beginning with a story followed by a vocabulary, several grammatical statements and conjugations, in turn followed by exercises that have nothing to do with the subject of the story. The authors had apparently glimpsed a new idea, but being at a loss what to do with it, had resumed their old incantations.

Feeling that a lesson should be made lively, another author sticks in pictures, and where he sees an empty space inserts a proverb or a riddle. Pupils may be bored if one adheres to a single grammatical topic throughout a lesson and teachers are thoroughly fed up on pens, pencils, blackboards, windows, men, women, children, fathers, mothers, houses, tables, chairs, eyes, ears and faces. Enliven the hour, then, with illustrative sentences from the life-history of the hippopotamus or the architecture of Hamburg. You will thus awaken the interest not only of the students, but of the teacher.

The "Direct Method" undoubtedly grasped something of the Gestalt idea when it insisted upon operating entirely with the foreign language instead of leaping back and forth between foreign and native. It was in the interest of good psychology to eliminate the dull, stumbling word-by-word translation that used to constitute a "recitation" in a foreign language.

Direct method, however, lost its head when it became a cult inspired with a sacred horror of the pupil's vernacular. The height of absurdity was reached when difficult grammatical rules were given in the unknown tongue, and the formal introductory text was followed with: *"Konjugieren Sie im Imperfekt"* or *"Deklinieren Sie in der Mehrzahl."*

For lack of a sound psychological basis, direct method gave itself up to catch-words like inductive method, association of ideas, self-activity. Direct method became completely mired in "multiple appeal." It is not true that a verbal impression is held more firmly if it is associated with different sense impressions, regardless of the organization of these impressions. The theory is valid only in so far as the several appeals belong together in one configuration. Separate, unorganized appeals accomplish no more than single appeals.

In more recent years new prophets have arisen with an "eclectic method." "Eclectic" is the war-cry of the philosophically bankrupt who have nothing of their own, but struggle to exist by borrowing a little here and there as need arises—perhaps the only thing to do in a period of hopeless destitution; but that time is past in pedagogy. We now have a criterion for interpreting methods, a key to hitherto insoluble problems.

There are Gestalts in linguistic pedagogy of different orders. The essential requirements are that the Gestalt be a complete figure, a closed circuit. Expressions usually taught as idioms are good examples: *il fait chaud. Qu'avez-vous? Me gusto el libro. Es tut mir leid. Es gefällt mir. Caesarem certiorem fecit.* Teachers who feel an obligation to teach "idioms," however, wrongly imagine they fulfill their duty by dragging one in now and then and making their pupils merely learn it by heart.

Completion exercises imply Gestalt psychology and they are good when made with sentences or paragraphs that have become familiar as wholes. It is a mockery of the underlying principle to concoct a brand new sentence, leave out a word or an ending and ask the pupil to supply the missing element by an application of his grammatical knowledge.

We used to hear a good deal about *"Sprachgefühl."* It is nothing but the memory of the right word or phrase in a given configuration. Take out the word and he who has *Sprachgefühl* feels it there just the same.

For some reason, completion exercises have been constructed only with omitted articles and endings indicating gender, case, and tense. It seems to have been entirely forgotten that a language consists primarily not of signs indicating gender, number, case, tense and mode, but of significant words. A stranger stepping into a restaurant in Berlin and addressing the waiter with, *"Bitt geb mich zwei Ei und ein Tass Kaffee,"* would get his breakfast. If he uttered the missing endings only, he would get nothing. We can build completion exercises more profitably at a certain stage in the course by omitting nouns or verbs than by omitting endings. It is an exercise especially suited to the reading lesson. Completion exercises with endings omitted are appropriate in the grammar lesson.

The much despised paradigm is a useful Gestalt at the right time and place. It is misused when it is placed at the head of the lesson as material from which subsequent exercises are to be constructed. It is a natural series for one to say "I go, you go, he goes, we go, you go, they go." That is complete. It takes in everybody. Similarly: "I go, I went, I have gone, I had gone, I shall go, I shall have gone," is complete; it takes in all possible times. The objection to paradigms is that they are not good to begin with but to end with; they are not sufficient for acquiring a language but only supplementary to other means. The mistake of the classical method has been to confuse a survey of the field with penetration and conquest; to substitute review and rationalization for concrete facts and habitual reaction. Pedagogical methodologists characteristically have flown from one extreme to another—from complete absorption in conjugations and declensions to an unreasoning dread of the slightest familiarity with the forbidden charms. Like translation, these harmless sing-songs are by many teachers supposed to be evil in themselves. On the contrary, like translations, they have a distinct value when used at the right time with a clear view of the purpose they serve.

* * * * *

The series or coherent short theme of which we have spoken before is the most perfect type of Gestalt, presenting an ordinary experience as a complete episode. Going to the board, writing a word, and so on, or opening the door, stepping out, entering, closing the door, and so forth.

The pedagogical problem in language teaching is to choose the proper whole, its mode of presentation and the rate and method of repetition. One of the commonest errors is to present wholes that are too large to be easily grasped by the pupils. Another, is to place at the head of the lesson a text that is not a unit, the sentences not logically connected, the nexus strained.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY FROM THE ORGANISMIC STANDPOINT

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[From *Educational Psychology,* George W. Hartmann, American Book Company, N. Y., 1941. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.]

(pp. 472–474) From the organismic standpoint, any form of language instruction is necessarily lowered in effectiveness whenever it occurs outside the cultural setting in which that language is normally employed. To learn to speak and write Italian outside of Italy (or those communities in which it is the ordinary medium of discourse) is almost as bad as trying to swim on dry land. The absence of the natural context for most foreign-language study is a severe handicap and is functionally equal to deprivation of certain major senses or to a lowering of one's normal level of brightness. The American traveler who sees a sign marked "Ecole" or "Pont" as his car approaches these structures in Québec is engaged in word learning by the "direct" method under circumstances where interest, motivation, and other factors conducive to rapid acquisition are favorable. Similarly, his reaction to "Escuela" and "Curva" on Mexican roads (especially if the latter word appears in conjunction with the universal symbol) is ordinarily more "lifelike" than if these terms first occur in an English-speaking classroom far from their native "habitat."

This outlook, of course, is of little practical service to the instructor and pupil who must grapple with matters of language expression without the support provided by the labels attached to material culture objects in their original environment. The next best thing to learning German in Germany is to make the course in elementary German not just a course of exercises in the language per se, but an introduction to German culture and civilization as a whole. A needless pettiness has characterized too much translation of the type, "Der Hund hat zwei Augen"; what is really needed is some geographical, historical, literary, artistic, and scientific material concerning the German people as a national group to serve as a background for the language practice; the linguistic patterns in turn may then be used to convey further knowledge about the aspects of the total culture that is being studied or even about material of universal or non-national scope.

The curse of all language study has been a tendency to keep the learner lingering over grammatical details and postponing until fairly late in the day all contact with the real substance of creative thought that is embodied in the foreign tongue. A much sounder plan is to offer the beginner a graded anthology dealing with many varieties of style and content, perhaps even beginning the instruction by parallel pages of original and translation. This "reading" method preserves the "wholeness" of thought that adds so much to both meaning and interest, and prevents language study from degenerating into a mechanical form of word substitution. The ability to think, write, or say "maison" in place of "house" (and vice versa) is a minor accomplishment which a frequency count of words or idioms can readily produce for the thousand commonest expressions; far more important is the achievement of that *Sprachgefühl* (=sense of the peculiar structure of a language) as it manifests itself in the formation of an independent sentence. This is an "emergent" or complex pattern reaction which appears after the contact with the written and oral language has created a comprehension of the special configuration characteristic of every tongue. It is an insight based upon a blend of sensory and motor components. For this reason, authentic "classical" models of the best and/or the most representative passages in the language, i.e. the most Spanish paragraphs in all Spanish letters, need to be analyzed until the peculiar distinctiveness of its verbal pattern is clearly grasped. Then, and only then, can one correctly claim that the language has been learned.

# 6 : METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

## A CRITICAL REVIEW OF METHODS OF TEACHING

[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1900.]

### THE GRAMMAR METHOD

(pp. 14–16) When the modern languages first became a regular subject for serious study in secondary schools it was natural that teachers, having no other model to imitate, should adopt the time-honored plan followed in the department of Greek and Latin. According to this method the pupil is first put through a volume of paradigms, rules, exceptions, and examples which he learns by heart. Only when he has thoroughly mastered this book is he allowed to read; and even then his reading is usually regarded as a means of illustrating and emphasizing grammatical principles, rather than as a source of inspiration or of literary education. The amount of foreign literature studied by the class is, moreover, extremely small; but it is all carefully analyzed and translated, every lesson being, in general, repeated several times. Composition is used as an instrument for increasing still more the student's familiarity with inflections and rules. The foreign language is never spoken, and pronunciation is considered unimportant.

This method has fallen into discredit; and while it is not yet entirely banished from classical instruction, it can scarcely be found, in its original purity, among the modern language courses of any civilized region. It has, however, certain undeniable advantages. In the first place it trains the mnemonic faculty; in the reaction against the hard, unattractive schooling of our fathers, modern pedagogical fashion has gone so far that the power of conscious acquisition and retention is hardly exercised at all; children go to college or out into life with an embryonic memory, and the teacher's task rivals the labor of the Danaïdes. Secondly, the careful study of grammatical rules and their nice application in translation and composition form one of the best possible exercises in close reasoning. It may be urged that logical processes are not natural to the child; neither are they natural to the uninstructed adult; but to be a successful student or an intelligent citizen, a boy or man must be able to arrive at rational conclusions. Hence it is one of the chief duties of education to afford practice in clear and orderly thinking. The principal value of arithmetic and algebra as secondary school studies lies in the fact that in them right or wrong reasoning are immediately and unmistakably distinguished by their results. In most subjects the white and black are not so clearly defined; between them lies a broad gray zone, the region of "not quite correct" and "not altogether bad," and it is toward this neutral belt that nearly all the pupil's efforts tend. The children "don't see why" their answer is not as good as any other, and the sloth and slovenliness native to the untrained human mind remain undisturbed. Now, grammatical analysis and synthesis, while less mechanical and more varied in their operation than elementary mathematics, are nearly or quite equal to it as a means of inculcating the habit of accurate ratiocination.

On the other hand, the grammar method is open to criticism on the ground that it neglects two of the most important objects of foreign-language study: the broadening of the mind through contact with the life, the ideas, and the forms of thought and expression of different times and countries; and the cultivation of the artistic sense by the appreciative study of literary masterpieces. A still more potent objection is the contention that pure grammar is not calculated to inspire interest in pupils of the high-school age. This objection seems to be well founded, and, if so, it is a fatal one; for modern pedagogy, if it has accomplished nothing else, has established the fact that interest is absolutely essential to the performance of the best work in any field. It appears, then, that the day of the pure grammar method is past; but while devising a system more in accordance with the principles and the possibilities of our time, let us not forget that the old-fashioned way had its good features.

### THE NATURAL METHOD

(pp. 16–19) At the opposite pedagogical pole from the process just described, we find the conversational or "natural" method. This educational "naturalism" is a reaction against the inflexible systematism of earlier teachers; we should, therefore, expect it to be somewhat aggressive and somewhat formless, more given to pulling down than to building up. It is a principle, an impulse, rather than a plan; and its products depend, to a greater extent than those of any other school, on the personality of the instructor. Too often the results of a protracted and supposedly successful course of unalloyed conversation are a rapid, but unintelligible pronunciation, the fluent use of incorrect forms, and, worst of all, a most discouraging self-complacency. Some peculiarly gifted teachers have succeeded in combining alertness with a reasonable degree of accuracy, but it will probably be found, in all such cases, that the instructor has resorted to devices not strictly "natural."

What is the genuine "natural method"? In its extreme form, it consists of a series of monologues by the teacher, interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between instructor and pupil—all in the foreign language; almost the only evidence of system is the arrangement, in a general way, of the easier discourses and dialogues at the beginning, and the more difficult at the end. A great deal of pantomime accompanies the talk. With the aid of this gesticulation, by attentive listening, and by dint of much repetition, the beginner comes to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of sound, and finally reaches the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases. When he has arrived at this stage, the expressions already familiar are connected with new ones in such a way that the former give the clue to the latter, and the vocabulary is rapidly extended, even general and abstract ideas being ultimately brought within the student's comprehension. The mother tongue is strictly banished, not only from the pupil's lips, but as far as possible, from his mind. Not until a considerable familiarity with the spoken idiom has been attained is the scholar permitted to see the foreign language in print; the study of grammar is reserved for a still later period. Composition consists of the written reproduction of the phrases orally acquired.

This method—if "method" is the proper term—is based on two general ideas; one true, the other false. The first is the belief that the interest so necessary to the successful prosecution of any study (and especially of language work) can most easily be aroused by the actual spoken use of the foreign tongue. The second is the theory that a boy or man can best learn a new language in the manner in which an infant first acquires its native speech. Hence comes the epithet "natural." The advocates of this view overlook, first, the fact that the child requires eight or ten years of incessant practice to gain even a tolerable command of its own tongue, and, secondly, the vast difference between the mind of the baby and that of the youth. The really natural methods of acquisition at these two stages of development are almost diametrically opposed. Let us consider, for instance, the learning of pronunciation. The newborn child, after various unsuccessful experiments, reproduces sounds correctly because it has no previous habits of speech to contend with. The boy or man, unless he is phonetically trained or exceptionally acute of hearing, does not imitate at all. He merely substitutes for the several strange vowels and consonants the English sounds which the foreign ones happen to suggest to him. That is why the pronunciation of conversational classes is generally not a whit better than that of scholars taught after the most antiquated fashion. In the attempt to inculcate the other elements of speech—inflections, syntax, and phraseology—the purely imitative process shows itself to be almost equally inadequate. We may justly urge, furthermore, against this style of teaching, that it provides little discipline for the intelligence; that it affords only the poorest kind of mnemonic training; that it favors vagueness of thought and imprecision of expression, and finally, that it sacrifices the artistic interest of language study to a so-called "practical" one. On the other hand, it certainly does awaken enthusiasm among its disciples, and it stimulates and holds the attention.

The natural method has been vehemently attacked and just as vigorously defended. At present the violence of the conflict has abated, and we are able to judge dispassionately the results of its introduction into our educational life. Those results have been mainly good. In summer schools and other institutions that have used the imitative process exclusively most of the pupils are persons who have had or will soon get some practice in grammar and reading. For them the conversation lessons are supplementary and form a useful addition to their training. In schools and colleges that have not accepted the "naturalistic" theory the fame of the new method has obliged teachers to adopt some of its practical features, thus bringing much-needed life and variety into their instruction. It seems probable that the next generation will regard "naturalism" rather as a vivifying influence than as an independent method.[1]

## The Psychological Method

(pp. 20–22) Out of the conviction that modern-language study should be made attractive, and out of the desire to adapt instruction to the known workings of the human mind, has come a system that seems more deserving of serious attention than the grammar method or the "natural" style of teaching. This is the system invented by Gouin and brought into general notice by Bétis.[2]

The psychological method rests on the principle of the association of ideas and the habit of "mental visualization." The whole current vocabulary of a language, in the form of short idiomatic sentences, is divided up into groups, every group consisting of phrases that are intimately connected in subject. One group forms a lesson. These brief divisions are gathered together in chapters, each of which treats of one general topic, and several chapters make a "series." When a pupil has gone through all the series, with numerous reviews, he will have mastered (so we are told) the whole spoken language. Every lesson is first worked out orally and then studied by the pupil from his book. On presenting each new word to the beginner the instructor exhorts him to close his eyes and form a distinct mental picture of the thing or act represented. This image (it is affirmed) will remain indissolubly connected with the word, and the evocation of the one will always recall the other. Sometimes real objects or drawings are used, and pantomime is frequently resorted to; but in most cases reliance is placed on the child's active imagination. It is never considered a sin to put in a word or two of English, and at the outset that language is very freely employed. Although most of the talking is done by the teacher, the pupils are constantly called upon to repeat his sentences and to answer questions. After the first lessons written compositions may be prepared, made up of phrases already acquired. Grammatical instruction is begun early, concurrently with the other exercises, but the reading of consecutive texts is postponed until the bulk of the ordinary vocabulary has been learned. Many innovations have been introduced into the presentation of grammar, but most of them are more radical in appearance than in reality. Some, however, are extremely ingenious, and will doubtless be copied by instructors who do not see fit to adopt the whole system.

The Bétis method has the following obvious advantages: it trains the memory; it fascinates the student and holds his attention more closely than any other mode of teaching now in vogue; it gives the pupil in a reasonably short time, a ready command over a large, well-arranged, and well-digested vocabulary; it affords, through some of its conversational groups, an insight into the life of a foreign country. As for the other side, the system seems, as far as we can ascertain the facts, to lay itself open to these criticisms: it affords but little opportunity for the exercise of judgment; it entirely neglects in the first years, the cultivation of the aesthetic sense, and assigns literary study to a stage which high-school pupils will scarcely ever reach. Moreover, its treatment of pronunciation is decidedly unsatisfactory; but this defect can probably be remedied without disturbing the rest of the scheme.

## The Phonetic Method

(pp. 22–29) Pronunciation, neglected in the three modes of instruction just mentioned, is the very foundation of a system that has of late years attracted attention in all northern Europe, and has gained a considerable footing in Germany and Scandinavia.[3] Its advocates, while not entirely free from the intolerance and the self-confidence so characteristic of enthusiastic reformers, are men of sound scholarship, successful experience, and good standing in the educational world. As far as can be ascertained, they have arrived at results which go far toward justifying their seemingly extravagant claims. There have been few attempts to introduce the phonetic teaching in this country; probably the most extensive trial of it has been made at the Johns Hopkins University.

The phonetic method resembles the "natural" and the "psychological" schools in that it takes the modern spoken language as a basis and at first relies mainly on oral instruction, using as far as possible the foreign language itself as a medium of communication. Unlike most "conversation" courses, however, it is very systematically constructed and its beginning is strictly scientific. It begins with a training of the ear and the vocal organs, the pupils being thoroughly drilled in the vowels and consonants of the strange tongue. These sounds are considered both as isolated phenomena and as elements of idiomatic phrases. The phrases, in turn, are combined into dialogues, descriptions and stories. At this stage printed texts are used, but only in phonetic notation. The ordinary spelling is carefully kept from the students during the elementary period. It is said that the transition from sound symbols to standard orthography presents no serious difficulty. Objects, pictures, and maps are constantly displayed, and every effort is made to familiarize the class with the surroundings, the institutions, the habits, the character, and the mode of thought of the people whose language they are learning. The phonetic texts gradually increase in length and difficulty and some of the latest are representative of literature. Inflections and syntax are studied inductively. Composition consists first of the oral and written reproduction of matter already heard or read, then of combinations of familiar phrases. Systematic grammar is reserved for a late stage, and translation comes last of all.

It is evident that this sort of instruction requires a special preparation and a special apparatus. Although the pupils are not taught phonetics, it is essential that the teacher be something of a phonetician; and the present difficulty of obtaining adequate instruction in the science of speech-sounds has doubtless done much to hinder the rapid general adoption of Vietor's programme. Let us hope that in the near future such training will be brought within the reach of all by means of courses conducted, in our universities and in our summer schools, by men who unite with the necessary scientific attainments a practical knowledge of the requirements of American pedagogy. Phonetic texts, too, although not absolutely indispensable, are of the greatest assistance.[4]

This method, while it lacks the logical discipline of the old grammatical instruction, is more successful than any other in forming a good pronunciation and in giving pupils a ready and accurate control of the spoken language. The training it affords can hardly fail, moreover, to improve the quality of the student's voice and his enunciation of his mother tongue. From the standpoint of mnemonic education, too, it ranks high. In stimulating interest it is nearly equal to the "natural" and "psychological" courses, and it is second only to the latter in holding the attention. The training of the attention should, by the way, be regarded as an important part of any pedagogical scheme; for the habit of inattention—the utter inability of pupils to fix their minds on anything for more than a few minutes at a time—is the most serious obstacle that confronts our secondary teachers. The attempt to give scholars, by ear and eye, by description and by the use of objects and pictures, a correct and vivid idea of foreign life has been carried further by the phoneticians than by any other school; but there is no reason, save the lack of rightly prepared instructors, why this feature should not be introduced into every method; the neglect of it defeats one of the principal objects of modern-language study. Another means to the same end is the system of international correspondence between school children of different countries.[5]

What are the disadvantages of the "phonetic" plan, when we consider it from the point of view of our American high schools? In the first place, it seems, like other "oral" methods, to overlook the importance of literary education, for it postpones the reading of real books to a stage that is beyond our secondary period. In Europe, where intercourse between foreign countries is easy and frequent, and a command of several languages has a recognized commercial value, it is natural that a practical mastery of the strange tongue should seem highly desirable. With us, isolated as we are, a speaking knowledge of French and German has, except for teachers, but little pecuniary worth; and even in the case of a student who has acquired it for pleasure alone, the opportunities for practice are so few that his hardly won accomplishment will soon slip from him. Familiarity with pronunciation and a certain ability to handle foreign constructions are, indeed, essential to a proper appreciation of the literature; but if literary study is not reached, of what avail is the preparatory training? For we must bear in mind that the vast majority of our pupils—those for whom the course should be planned—will not continue their education beyond the high school. It has been pointed out that oral work, besides exercising the organs of speech, arouses interest and fosters a certain alertness of mind, and is therefore valuable for its own sake. We may question, however, whether these benefits make up for the sacrifice of all the aesthetic culture and the intellectual broadening that come only from the reading of good books.

To this criticism the European advocates of the method would surely reply that they believe in abundant reading, after the student has mastered the spoken idiom. It appears, then, that the real fault of their programme, as applied to our conditions, is not so much that its underlying principle is entirely incompatible with our creed as that it calls for much more time than we allot to foreign language. In fact, we may well doubt whether with our three or four hours a week for three or four years our scholars would ever reach the end even of the elementary stage; they certainly would not go beyond it; their acquisition would be only a fragment. If we should wish to introduce this or any other thoroughgoing method, we should be obliged to increase the importance of French and German in the school curriculum; and such increase is desirable from every point of view. Not only should the pupils who are intending to continue these studies in college receive the best possible preliminary training, but all children who begin the subjects at all should give them time enough to admit of an extended course, conducted according to the most enlightened principles. In order to gain the necessary hours, the foreign language must be taken up earlier, or some other high-school topic must be sacrificed. A few things thoroughly and intelligently done make the best secondary discipline. As long, however, as our present conditions last it is clear that we must give up something. Until we are all willing greatly to lengthen the time given to the linguistic part of our children's education, we shall have to renounce the idea of a full, well-rounded knowledge of French and German, and, selecting the portion of the subject that appears most important for the greatest number, devote ourselves to the cultivation of that restricted field. Considerations of this nature have led many thoughtful teachers to adopt a mode of instruction that we may call the "reading method."

## The Reading Method

(pp. 29–30) The title explains itself. The study of texts from the very beginning of the course, abundant practice in translation at sight, leading ultimately to the ability to read the foreign language with ease and without the interposition of English, are the principal features of this programme. Grammar and composition are regarded merely as a help to reading, and are reduced to the essentials; sometimes accidence and syntax are first learned inductively, but oftener a small text-book is used concurrently with translation. Great importance is attached to the use of good English in the renderings. Pronunciation receives scant attention; there is little or no oral exercise.

This method has been much used of late in our schools and colleges, especially those that have large classes, a short course, and an American teacher. The great advantage of the process is that it quickly enables the student to read French and German literature—not with the complete appreciation that only an all-around command of the language can give, but with the same kind of intelligence and enjoyment with which good classical scholars read Latin. Indirectly, it helps the pupil to form a good style, and to increase the volume and precision of his English vocabulary; it cultivates the taste by dwelling upon delicacies of expression; it exercises the memory through the enforced retention of words and idioms; it trains the linguistic sense by calling attention to the points of resemblance and difference in various tongues; and the exact fitting of phrase to thought forms an excellent discipline for the judgment.

On the other hand, in addition to the fact that it deals with only one aspect of language, the reading method is lacking in vivacity and in stimulus to the attention; it interests only the more serious pupils. Moreover, the continued use, year after year, of an easy way of teaching—for it is comparatively easy, and requires but little special training—may prove demoralizing to the instructor, dull his appetite for self-improvement, and make him indolent and easily satisfied with his qualifications.

## Concerning Method

(pp. 34–35) If this report were intended to meet ideal conditions, that is, if it were addressed to teachers whose training would permit them to choose freely from the methods that have been described and to combine them with wise discretion, the committee might be disposed (although in that case, as we have already remarked, advice with regard to method would hardly be needed) to make some such recommendations as the following: For very young children, say up to the age of ten, the "natural" or imitative method of the nurse or the governess, with some help perhaps from the "psychological" method. For a course of six years, beginning, say, at the age of twelve, a combination during the first three years of the "psychological" and "phonetic" methods, accompanied by some study of grammar; after that a more thorough study of grammar, together with the reading and translation of good literature, supplemented by oral practice in the language and written composition. For a four years' course, beginning in the high school, we should recommend a similar procedure, the division between the "psychological-phonetic" and the "reading" method coming, however, somewhat earlier, say, after the first year. In combining the "psychological" and "phonetic" methods the general plan of the former would be followed, while the latter would be imitated in its treatment of pronunciation and, so far at least as French is concerned, in its use of phonetically transcribed texts. For any shorter course we should advise the "reading" method, accompanied, however, by scientific training in pronunciation, drill in the rudiments of grammar, and a moderate amount of oral practice.

* * * * *

## NOTES

1. For a description of the natural method see *Der Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache*, by G. Heness, and L. Sauveur's *Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages*. The method is well exemplified, not only in the *Leitfaden*, but in *Der Sprachlehrer unter seinen Schülern*, by Heness, and in Sauveur's *Causeries avec mes élèves* and *Petites causeries*. All these works are now published by Messrs. Henry Holt & Co., of New York.

2. Its operation and results are described at considerable length in *Die neueren Sprachen*, by R. Kron in III, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (published separately under the title *Die Methode Gouin, oder das Serien-System in Theorie und Praxis*, Marburg, 1896), and by V. Knorr in III, 8, and V, 9. The method has been subjected to a searching criticism by Traugott in the same periodical, VI, 6. It should be said here that Bétis has considerably altered the original plan; and opinions are divided concerning the respective advantages of the two versions. The real Gouin system can be studied in the author's *Art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues*, Paris, 1880 (third edition in 1897); the Bétis or "psychological" method is illustrated by a volume called *The Facts of Life*, New York, 1896, by Bétis and Swan. Without presuming to pass judgment on the merits of the case, we shall confine ourself to the revised plan, since that is the one more widely known and the only one that has been tried in America. It was brought to the attention of the English-speaking world in 1892 and 1893 by the articles of W. T. Stead in the *Review of Reviews*. In the years 1895–1897 it was used in Boston, Mass., by Bétis himself, and it is now on trial in one of the public high schools of the same city.

3. The names by which it is known are the "reform," the "new," and the "phonetic" methods. It was outlined by Vietor in his famous monograph, *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren* (1882, new edition, Heilbronn, 1886), and its principal features are set forth on the cover of every number of the *Maître phonétique*. Both this periodical (the organ of the *Association Phonétique Internationale*) and *Die neueren Sprachen*, edited by Vietor, are devoted to the propagation of the phonetic method. The list of publications—books, pamphlets, and articles—which deal with the "reform method" is very large. A complete bibliography down to 1893 is given by H. Breymann in *Die neusprachliche Reform-Litteratur von 1876–1893, eine bibliographischkritische Uebersicht*, Leipzig, 1893. Two articles by leading exponents of the method have appeared in American journals, viz., "A new method of language teaching," by W. Vietor, in the *Educational Review*, Vol. VI, p. 351, and "Phonetics and reform method," by A. Rambeau, in *Modern Language Notes*, Vol. VIII, p. 161. An excellent report of observations made during a six months' tour of inspection of German schools is given by Mary Brebner in *The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany:* New York, Macmillan, 1898, and this is now admirably supplemented

by the work of Karl Breul, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in our [English] Secondary Schools,* New York, Macmillan, 1898. A conservative and at the same time fairly representative presentation of the aims and methods of the "reformers" is given by W. Münch in his and F. Glauning's *Didaktik und Methodik des französischen und englischen Unterrichts, Sonderausgabe aus A. Baumeisters Handbuch der Erziehungs und Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen.* On pp. 102 sq. is to be found a select list of the more important writings on method in modern-language teaching which have appeared in recent years.

4. Some good ones are already available: For French, F. Beyer and P. Passy; Rambeau and J. Passy have provided us with suitable chrestomathies; in German we have a little book by Vietor; the *Maître phonétique,* furthermore, is constantly furnishing material in various languages.

5. Mentioned by Vietor in *Die neueren Sprachen,* v, 3, 165, and described by Professor Magill in *Modern Language Notes,* XIII, 3. The plan was first suggested in the *Revue universitaire* for June, 1896, by Prof. P. Mielle, who gave an account of his efforts to bring about an interchange of letters between French children studying English and English children studying French. His idea attracted immediate attention in France and England, ere long also in Germany, Italy, and the United States, and it was soon perceived that it could be turned to profit, not only for school children, but also for adults, especially for teachers. Having already been tried on a large scale, the plan has passed the experimental stage and may be confidently recommended as a valuable aid in the learning of a living language. At first, correspondents could be secured only through certain journals, which published lists of names in consideration of a subscription. Later, on the initiative of the *Manuel général de l'instruction primaire,* a large committee was appointed, which now undertakes gratuitously to bring correspondents together. . . . In Germany the plan has been taken up prominently by Dr. K. A. Martin Hartmann, of Leipsic, who has reported upon a trial of it in the Saxon schools and published a body of *Vorschläge* relating to it. The advantages of the system are well set forth by Petri in *Die neueren Sprachen,* VI, 511, and objections to it are answered by Hartmann in the same journal, VI, 324. A second and more extended article by Prof. Edw. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, may be found in *Modern Language Notes* for February, 1889.

## TRANSLATION INTO ENGLISH—SIGHT READING

[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1900.]

(pp. 65–69) In the majority of schools it would appear that, after the first few months, the study of German consists principally in the translation of German literature into English. Translation is the exercise which is felt by both teacher and pupil to be the most important, and it is the one, accordingly, which is most insisted upon. It is also the exercise most easily handled. To sit and hold a book while the members of the class translate, one after the other, into class-room English, to correct their more serious blunders, and help them to "get the sense," requires no great amount of preparation, no great expenditure of energy or ingenuity. But while it has its dangers, the profitableness of translation cannot be successfully attacked. Whatever may be true of very young children, one who already knows one language will learn another most "naturally," most expeditiously, and most thoroughly by means of comparison with his mother tongue; and this comparison, as was pointed out in a preceding section, is an important instrument of discipline and culture. Moreover, translation is the most effective and the most readily available means of determining whether the sense of a passage is exactly understood. It is the best detective of mental haziness, half-knowledge, and self-deception. At the same time it should not be forgotten that the principal object of study is not to learn to translate, but to learn to read without translating.

How to deal with translation so as to make neither too much nor too little of it, so as to get the good and escape the evil of it, is not a simple problem for the teacher. It is easy to say that good translation should always be insisted on, and that bad English should never be allowed to go uncorrected. As a counsel of perfection, this is no doubt good. The trouble is, however, that really good translation of real literature is an art requiring literary skill. There must be time for the mental balancing of alternatives, the testing of synonyms, etc. No one can do it offhand. To expect schoolboys or college students to do it in the ordinary routine of class work, is to expect impossibilities. On the other hand, slovenly, incorrect, and unidiomatic translation is worse than a waste of time. The young person who gets into the habit of murdering his mother tongue in cold blood, under the pretense of learning a foreign language, does himself more harm than good. What, then, is to be done? The practical answer would seem to be this: Between the extremes of atrocious English, which should not be endured, and the really good English, which is unattainable, there is a wide belt of what may be called tolerable English; English which is not excellent from a literary point of view, but is at least clear, grammatical, free from gross improprieties in respect to idiom, and reasonably faithful to the meaning of the original. Such tolerable English is all that can be expected in the ordinary routine of the class room. It is, however, desirable that the learner become aware that there is a higher ideal, and that he have some practice in trying to reach it. To this end a passage of German text should occasionally be given out for a carefully prepared written translation, with instructions to take time and make the work just as good as possible. Such translations should then be criticised by the teacher and compared with one another in the class. Attention should be called to the small points of idiom, arrangement, choice of words, turn of phrase, etc., which make up the difference between the tolerable and the excellent. In this way the pupil's literary sense will be cultivated; he will become familiar with the idea of translation as an art, and the effect will be to improve gradually the quality of his ordinary work.

The next question is: How long and to what extent should the routine translation of good German into tolerable English be insisted on in the class room? The answer is: So long as and wherever the teacher is certain that the learner can translate his passage of German into tolerable English, it is, as a rule, not worth while to have him do it; the time can be used to better advantage. An exception may be made, of course, in the case of pupils who are for any reason unusually backward in their English, or for such as may be suspected of not preparing their lessons. But for capable pupils who have a right attitude toward their teacher and their work, there presently comes a time when the routine translation in class of what they have previously prepared ceases to be profitable. They learn no new German in the process, and they do not improve their command of English. For A, B, C, and D, who have prepared their lessons and know perfectly well how to translate a given passage, to sit in the class while E actually translates it means a waste of time. When that stage is reached it is time to drop the systematic translation of the entire lesson in class, to call only for the rendering of words or passages that are liable to be misunderstood, and to use the time thus gained in some exercise more profitable than superfluous translation.

One such exercise is reading at sight. Since the general aim in the elementary course is to learn to read very easy narrative prose at sight and not to learn to translate any specified texts, and since the candidate for admission to college will probably be tested upon some text that he has never studied, it is evident that considerable practice should be given in sight reading. Teachers sometimes object to this exercise on the ground that it encourages guesswork and inaccuracy. But the objection is not valid. The object of the exercise is to increase the learner's vocabulary, to make him feel that he can read German that he has not previously studied and to give him facility in such reading. There is not the slightest objection to his guessing at the meaning of a new word. All our reading is largely a process of divination, and the better we can divine from the context the better we can read. Of course the wrong guesses must be corrected, and the teacher is there for that purpose. It is hardly necessary to say that for sight reading the very easiest texts that can be found should be chosen.

### Reproductive Translation into German

(pp. 69–70) It will be observed that the programme of work for the second year of the elementary course provides for practice in "the offhand reproduction, sometimes orally and sometimes in writing, of the substance of short and easy selected passages." This is what the Germans call "freie Reproduktion," and is one of the most profitable exercises possible. It teaches the pupil to give heed not only to the meaning but to the form in which it is expressed, to put thoughts in German with German as a starting point. The language of the original should, of course, not be memorized verbatim; what is wanted is not an effort of the memory, but an attempt to express thought in German forms that are remembered in a general way but not remembered exactly. The objection to independent translation from English into German is that for a long time it is necessarily mechanical. The translator has no help except his dictionary and grammar. His translation is mere upsetting. In free reproduction, on the contrary, he instinctively starts from his memory of the original. His thoughts tend to shape themselves in German form. In short, he learns to think in German.

## INFLUENCE OF METHOD OF PRESENTATION ON LEARNING

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[From *Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology,* Toronto, 1928, pp. 53–56. P.A.C.C. Vol. VIII. Reprinted by permission of M. A. Buchanan.]

An extensive psycho-educational literature is available on the question of the relation between the mode of presentation and learning. Handschin[1] in his important treatise reviews much of the psychological literature on the question, and concludes, "If the fourfold learning of language is to be accomplished, the first approach should be aural, the second, oral."

On perhaps no problem in learning is the evidence more contradictory. Flagstad emphasizes the importance of motor activity on the part of the learner. O'Brien, too, adduces evidence in support of saying the word aloud. Zuccari shows that suppression of articulation seriously interferes with learning. Pohlmann found that the results obtained from auditory presentation of sense-material, *i.e.* words and objects, were on the whole better than with visual presentation, and that with nonsense syllables visual presentation showed a decided superiority, due, Meumann suggests, to the difficulty of analysing unfamiliar words into phonetic elements, when the words are auditorily presented.[2] In another study Pohlmann reports that in a girls' school visual presentation was superior for sense material, a result that Meumann describes as "remarkable." Contrary to Flagstad, this same investigator reports that the introduction of articulation influenced the results unfavourably. Meumann, summarizing Pohlmann's data, shows that the superiority of auditory presentation holds only with young children; later the positions become gradually reversed [3] for sense material, and attributes this change to the methods of teaching employed. Münsterberg and Bingham found that "a series of presentations to two senses at the same time is much more easily reproduced than if given only to sight or to hearing." Henmon, in a carefully controlled study, demonstrated the superiority of auditory presentation for adults in the case of nouns, nonsense syllables and numbers, when tested by immediate recall. It is of little purpose to go further in review of these data. Enough has been said to show that totally contradictory results appear in the studies to date. Several additional reviews are included in this monograph.[4]

It is not easy to explain the divergent findings. The question is inextricably bound up with the old theory of imagery-types (Betts, Angell, Segal, Handschin). The first empirical study of imagery-types was published in 1860 by Fechner in his *Psychophysik*, but it is from Galton, F., *Enquiry Into the Human Faculties*, 1880 that we owe the inauguration of the studies of the first two decades of this century. Galton contended that scientific men were weak in their powers of visual imagery; that keenness of imagery was an hereditary trait, stronger in females than in males. Persons could be divided into types according to the kind of imagery dominant in their ideational life, and could be classified as motor-minded, eye-minded, etc. This theory was taken over by educationists, who proposed that ear-minded people required auditory presentation, eye-minded required visual presentation, etc. The theory is indefensible in the light of recent experimental investigations. Only a small percentage of persons, if indeed any, use one type of imagery exclusively; persons with keen imagery of one sort are likely to have relatively clear imagery in other sense-departments (Henmon, Netschajeff, Betts). Even if imagery-types did exist, it would be difficult to get a reliable diagnosis of this fact (Angell). As a matter of fact the type of imagery used by an individual alters with slight alterations in conditions (Angell). As a particular instance of the attempt to apply the imagery-type theory to problems of learning we might note Schmidt's contention that the visual type "are by nature rapid readers . . . the motor type, on the other hand, tends to represent the slowest readers. There can be little doubt that rapid readers fall almost exclusively into two classes": good visualizers and those of the auditory type who are learning to scan.

To return now to the explanation of the contradictory results obtained in comparisons of method of presentation. To the writer the problem is a fruitless one, for the following reasons:

(*a*) Much reading and much thinking may go on without any discoverable imagery.

(*b*) The sense department in which a subject matter is presented is not of necessity the one in which it is recalled.

(*c*) The type of imagery used (if any) in recall of words, objects, etc., depends to a considerable degree on the immediate environment, and largely on previous training.

(*d*) The important neurological process in learning is not the receptor, but rather the cortex. It probably makes little difference (except that due to previous training) by what endorgan the stimulus is received (provided it is "adequate"), as long as the integrity of the cortex is assured. Differences in the speed and accuracy of reading, thinking, recognizing, or what not, are dependent on a central rather than a peripheral process.

If this interpretation is correct, it makes but little difference whether the presentation is auditory or visual or one requiring articulation so long as two criteria are met: (1) that it stimulates the student to active effort; for learning goes on only when the subject is active; it is never a process of "passive absorption"; (2) that it provides practice in doing the type of thing the student wants to know. If it is desired to form an oral speech habit, articulation must be an important part of the method; if the emphasis is on silent reading, the student must be practised in rapid visual recognition, since this is the function he wishes to use. As Judd points out there is no one best method, and this is especially so in connection with the sense department to which presentation is made.

## NOTES

1. *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages,* 1923. See chap. I, pp. 20–47.

2. Meumann states that "Since visual presentation has been shown to be especially advantageous with unfamiliar words, Pohlmann correctly infers that visual presentation has great significance in the teaching of foreign languages and that

the purely auditory method or vocal method which is now being recommended, is one-sided and unwarranted."—*Psychology of Learning*, p. 155. This conclusion seems to have been underestimated by Handschin in his summary of the experimental findings.

3. See Hawkins, C. J., *op. cit.*, for similar results.
4. *Cf.* Winch, W. H.; Schiller, V. H.; Erickson and King, I.

# SUMMARIZING CONCLUSIONS ON METHOD

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[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, N. Y. 1929. P.A.C.C. Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 276–277) 1. The fundamental consideration in determining the choice of a teaching technique in modern languages is that the activities in which teacher and students engage must be such as to give the students the maximum amount of practice during the period of study in doing the kinds of things that are included in the objectives approved for a given teaching situation. A method can be considered appropriate only when this principle is observed and when other important factors are kept in mind, such as the linguistic equipment of teachers, their capacity to organize the material and to conform intelligently and eagerly to the guiding principles of a given procedure and the other general conditions prevailing in any given teaching situation.

2. Despite a certain amount of experimentation that has been done, there is little concrete and wholly trustworthy evidence to show to what extent a given classroom method is, in itself, productive of superior or of inferior results. At the same time, the distinct trend of secondary school teachers away from translation as a means and as an end, and toward some form of "direct" approach to the thought contained in a foreign text, is marked, and has apparently been beneficial in arousing more interest in students and in causing teachers themselves to learn the foreign language more effectively.

3. There is a widespread belief among secondary school and college teachers that inability on the part of members of the profession to speak the languages they teach is the most important single cause of poor results in developing oral ability in the classroom. The fact that a very

large majority of the modern language teachers in the United States have neither traveled nor studied in countries where the languages are spoken is a factor of importance in this connection. While this situation has a very direct bearing on the extent to which American schools in general may safely adopt the Direct method as commonly conceived, it also lays on college departments a heavy obligation to train prospective teachers more effectively to pronounce, to understand, and to speak the foreign language, and upon prospective and practising teachers the responsibility of developing themselves in this direction by study here and abroad.

4. So many factors are involved in every teaching situation that none of the various efforts made by the Study to secure unequivocal testimony in regard to the comparative results from different teaching methods were wholly successful. In most classes in which the best results were observed the foreign language was largely used, but good oral attainment was not always accompanied by success in reading and in writing. In all the superior schools the organization of the work, the kind of supervision in the departments, the quality of the teaching, and administrative coöperation were superior. The results of test administrations in the better schools warrant no entirely clear-cut conclusions in regard to method when considered apart from other factors. They do, however, give definite support to the view that there is a direct ratio between teaching emphasis and the results obtained in terms of grammar or of composition or of reading.

5. There is great need of careful experimentation to determine more definitely the effect upon learning a foreign language of the various procedures as applied under typical American school conditions. Especially is this true with respect to the relative effect upon reading power during the elementary stage of "intensive" study of a small amount of reading material, as now generally practised, as compared with more abundant "direct" reading experience, accompanied by less detailed study of grammar and less written practice in translation from English and in reproduction in the foreign tongue. With the aid of carefully controlled experimentation it should be possible to test more thoroughly the theory that a procedure of the latter kind aids the student to develop more quickly the fluency in immediate understanding of the printed page that is essential for reading with ease and enjoyment.

## CLASSROOM TECHNIC IN READING

**[From *Syllabus of Minima in Modern Foreign Languages,* N. Y. C. Board of Education, 1931, pp. 12–16. Reprinted by permission.]**

### *Suggested Technic in Intensive Reading*

Reading is the most fundamental and important skill to be acquired in the preparatory stages of one's education. Other skills acquired in language study may be lost for want of practice, but the ability to read is permanent in value because it may be applied wherever books are available. To read means first of all to comprehend written thought; but this is not enough. In the modern world speed is also a primary requisite. Swift comprehension of the printed page suffices for a certain type of matter. It does not suffice for the appreciation of literature. For this purpose the tongue must be trained to produce the sound, intonation and rhythm of the language, and the ear must likewise be trained to receive these sounds and this rhythm.

The classroom technic must be such as to lead to a reasonably accurate, fluent and expressive reading of the foreign sentence and paragraph, with direct and complete comprehension of the thought content. The main points of this technic have already been developed, but they need to be applied more persistently and more intelligently. One chief stumbling block in the past has been the use of reading matter on a given level of difficulty before being led to a stage higher. There must be intensive work on a given level followed by much rapid reading on that level. When initiating the pupil into reading of a particular grade of difficulty, intensive work must be done; as a rule, new material should be heard before being seen. It should likewise be understood before it is seen. The devices used should all tend, first, toward *a right comprehension of the passage through the ear,* and second, to *an ability to handle the matter fluently with the tongue.*

A suggested procedure is as follows:

1. Model reading of text by the teacher with advance explanation of difficulties.
2. Study of text by pupils.
3. Exercises.
   (a) Questions and answers in the foreign language based on thought content of the text.

(b) Word study, including synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, cognates, definitions, and word families.
(c) Paraphrases or summaries in English or the foreign language of matter read by the teacher or by a student.

4. Oral reading by the pupils.

* * * * *

### *Suggested Technic in Extensive Reading*

Extensive reading, whether performed in class or whether assigned for home study, is chiefly an exercise in silent reading.

The passage selected should, if possible, represent one or more thought units, not merely so many lines or pages.

Since a well selected passage or story is necessarily one employing a vocabulary based on earlier intensive reading experiences, there should be few word or idiom difficulties.

When the pupil engages in silent reading at sight in class, a time limit should be set, one that prevents the fast, efficient reader from dawdling, and at the same time urges the slow reader to an increased rate of performance.

The silent reading should be followed by tests and discussion, either in English or in the foreign language, with emphasis on an alert attitude and search for meaning. It is not advisable to adhere to a stereotyped method in this procedure. This part of the exercise provides training for effective study and its value depends on variety and appropriateness. The following are a few suggestions for procedure:

1. Questions set by the teacher before the reading on the basic ideas of the unit; answers to be found in the text.
2. Questions asked by the teacher after the reading; pupils answer with books closed, or, at other times, with books open.
3. Questions prepared by pupils, and answered by their classmates.
4. Oral reproduction of the text with the aid of guide words.
5. Pupils outline or summarize what they have read.
6. Pupils write a title for each paragraph. Titles discussed. New titles suggested for the story.
7. Selection of topic sentences for each paragraph, with discussion of reasons for selection.
8. The teacher writes a series of sentences and asks pupils to find paragraphs to which they correspond.
9. The teacher writes a series of sentences which do not follow the order of the story. Pupils arrange them in correct order.

10. Questions such as: Which of these words .........., .........., .........., best describes character X, or the hero's house, or his action? And so forth.

11. True or false statements.

12. Yes or No questions.

13. Completion exercises.

14. Multiple choice exercises.

15. Matching exercises.

A resourceful teacher can easily multiply such tests of ability to locate data, to select pertinent points, to organize ideas, to answer questions, to sense relationships, and to recognize words and phrases. *Grammatical dissection must be avoided.*

## SUPPLEMENTARY READING

This type of reading outside of class, if properly controlled, can create an interest in the foreign country and its people, and stimulate a desire to read the language. Thus, motivated supplementary reading will facilitate the realization of our primary aim—the development to the point of enjoyment of the ability to read the foreign language. Such reading furnishes the opportunity for making the instruction valuable, useful and pleasurable, even for beginners. It may lead to intelligent and independent study of the country, its inhabitants, history, literature and civilization.

Supplementary reading may be in the foreign language or in English. During the early stages it is advisable to limit the outside reading to material in English. When the pupil has skills sufficient for treating an assignment in extensive classroom reading, supplementary reading in the foreign tongue may be introduced. This does not imply, however, that from this moment English books are to be avoided; on the contrary, it is recommended that throughout the entire course supplementary reading in the vernacular be continued, particularly of valuable original works, fiction as well as non-fiction.

### *Suggested Technic in Supplementary Reading*

The following suggestions may be used in connection with supplementary reading:

1. Keep the amount required within the reach of the average pupil. Increase the amount according to the term of progress.

2. Make the required supplementary reading an integral part of the work throughout the term.

3. Offer additional credit for reading more than the amount required, thus taking care of individual differences and encouraging the reading habit.

4. Select suitable material. In foreign language reading, for example, begin with easy school texts that have not been studied.

5. Correlate with other subjects of the curriculum; for instance, let pupils read foreign translations of books on the required English reading list.

6. Keep a record of the pupil's supplementary reading throughout the entire course.

7. Reports on supplementary reading may be checked by:
   (a) Oral discussion, in English or the foreign language, according to the progress of the student.
   (b) Written essays, outlines, or summaries.
   (c) Replies to definite questions, requiring specific answers.

8. Encourage the pupils to keep a careful vocabulary list in which they note some of the words they encounter. A vocabulary does not grow and develop without attention; it must be consciously and deliberately cultivated.

## TECHNIQUE

[From *Final Report of the Committee on Modern Foreign Languages,* Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts, 1933, pp. 21–24.]

1. It is recognized that any suggested methods of instruction must at times be varied to meet special conditions; but, in general, it seems advisable to insist upon certain fundamentals necessary to the accomplishment of the aims set forth.

2. It is undeniable that the natural interest of pupils is best aroused through a concrete approach to the subject that adds reality to the process of instruction rather than through an abstract approach by means of book work from the start. Classroom equipment and performance afford an admirable instrument, immediately at hand, for the direct reception by the pupil of new impressions and the direct association of meanings and ideas with spoken words. To build up from the start a classroom vocabulary, with the tools at hand, as a foundation for the development of the superstructure by more complicated mechanisms is an eminently natural and stimulating process, abundantly satisfying the pupil's desire for concrete accomplishment. Even with the more ma-

ture pupil it is important that interest be maintained by a continuing sense of progress in the natural use of the language and never dulled by a superabundance of technical work.

3. In the approach to the actual study of a living language, especially when the matter of new sounds is to be considered, psychologists and linguistic authorities (Handschin, Palmer, Judd, Sweet, Jespersen) are agreed that the learning process becomes most effective when the various steps are taken up in the following order:

Through the ear by the reception of aural impressions.
Through speech by imitation and reproduction of what has been heard.
Through the eye by recognition of graphic equivalents of what has been heard or uttered.
Through the muscular sense in writing.

4. *Aural comprehension:*

It is advisable when dealing with beginners to develop at first, without artificial means, the spontaneous capacities of imitation and reproduction. To accomplish this, it is necessary that there should be periods of receptivity on the part of the pupil, during which, within the recitation or series of recitations he registers and becomes fully familiar with new aural impressions before attempting to reproduce them orally. No time is better suited for emphasis upon aural comprehension than the very outset and no means is better adapted for developing it than the objective classroom vocabulary.

5. *Oral expression:*

Then follows oral training when the pupil begins to reproduce the sound symbols that have become familiar to him and asociated with meanings. At this point, encouragement of absolute mimicry is most important. As the self-consciousness of some pupils is often a great hindrance to their progress, it is advantageous to have class concert exercise precede individual practice. As early as possible, the pupil should be encouraged to formulate sentences, either making replies to questions or suiting words to actions while keeping as far as possible from the tendency to think in the mother tongue.

6 *Pronunciation:*

(a) The impossibility of rigorously isolating pronunciation from any of the initial steps of language learning is apparent. Training in pronunciation is closely interrelated with them and runs through them all. It may well be undertaken concomitantly with the first step of aural comprehension and the second step of oral expression, and also with the process of building up an active classroom vocabulary.

(b) The whole question of pronunciation being to a large extent a development of the power of imitation, it is highly important that ear training connected with sound symbols should precede eye training connected with graphic symbols. It is a much more natural process for beginners to associate sounds, which have become familiar to them, with graphic representations than to work out by a more analytical and technical process the proper sounds from the printed symbols; furthermore, the visual training already received in connection with reading other languages will be likely to lead the pupil astray in determining the proper pronunciation of printed words before previously having heard them. Too early visual training in a language may very easily give rise to errors in pronunciation, which may fixate themselves as wrong habits. During the period of receptivity on the part of the pupils, when they are registering new aural impressions, the teacher may well call attention not only to the peculiarities of the sounds of the language, but also to the proper use and positions of the organs of speech required to make them.

(c) If accuracy of pronunciation is to be attained, it is during the period of oral expression that concentration should begin on habituating pupils to the proper use of the organs of speech. Demonstrations of their use by the teacher are highly essential. Constant vigilance on his part is demanded to prevent the acquirement of bad habits. Continuous drill beginning with the simplest known sounds and proceeding by slow stages to the more difficult unknown sounds and word groups, based upon the vocabulary already acquired, is most important at the early stages.

(d) Phonetics: No mention of the word "phonetics" has been made in the preceding paragraphs. The necessity for the teaching of good pronunciation is unquestioned whatever the technique employed. Nothing further need be said for or against the use of phonetic symbols, since no good would be done by adding to all that has been written pro and con on the subject. It is of the utmost importance, however, that the teacher be equipped with a thorough knowledge of the science of phonetics whatever may be his method of teaching good pronunciation.

7. *Visual comprehension:*

(a) The third step in the progress: the coordination of eye with ear and with utterance may well be introduced when the teacher feels that his pupils have become accustomed to foreign sounds both in comprehending and in reproducing them orally. He may then proceed, in connection with instruction in pronunciation, to give graphic representations of the sounds already known.

(b) It is advisable that the various graphic equivalents of the different sounds of the new language, already familiar to the ear, should be perfectly familiar to the pupil's eye before actual reading in a textbook begins. Oral spelling and writing from dictation of sounds, syllables, words, and word groups, are a helpful means of establishing an accurate sense of the values of letters to represent sounds, and should be a natural introductory step to formal reading. A respect for accuracy, extending to the minutest detail of written accent, must be won from the first.

## METHOD AND PROCEDURE

[From *Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages*, The University of the State of New York, Albany, 1937, pp. 10–21. Reprinted by permission of the State Education Department.]

There are two fundamentally different methods—the direct and the indirect, with several subclassifications. The direct method seeks to eliminate the mother tongue, endeavoring from the beginning to associate directly the object and the foreign word, the thought and the foreign expression. The indirect method bases its work on the pupil's knowledge of his own language and depends largely upon preliminary grammatical instruction, translation and explanation in the vernacular.

Few advocates of the direct method are now so extreme as to reject all use of the mother tongue, nor would any good teacher, who uses, in general, an indirect method, fail to employ many devices for getting a direct association of thought and foreign speech. The chief of these devices is drill in oral and aural work, since the sentence must then be grasped as a whole and not by isolated word-units.

The essentials of a good, common sense method are, in the opinion of the syllabus committee, the following:

1 Phonetic drill from the beginning (especially in French) with abundant aural and oral work.

2 The sequence of: ear, tongue, eye, hand, in all elementary work (aural work followed by oral, reading followed by writing).

3 Genuine reading of the foreign text, with increasingly less emphasis upon translation, from term to term and year to year. Of course this reading must be graded to suit the attainments of the pupils in each term and year of work.

4 Grammar treated inductively and based upon a connected text. The word "inductive" here means examples before rules, with a conscious effort on the part of the teacher to have the pupils arrive at their own generalizations from observed examples.

5 The foreign language largely (and, in the indirect method, progressively more and more term by term and year by year) the medium of instruction.

6 Connected reading the center of instruction and the basis of discussion by question and answer drill and of treatment by oral and written résumés. This reading may start with the pupil's environment, but should be shifted, at least after the first year, to the foreign environment. Pictures and objects may be used freely at first (what the Germans call *Anschauungs-unterricht*).

7 Special effort to arouse an interest in the foreign nation, with attention to *Realia*—daily life, history, geography, cultural material. While this work is considered essential, it is incidental to the main purposes of the course. To make such reading and instruction the center of instruction would defeat the very purpose here proposed, which is to arouse interest in the foreign nation.

The essential of these recommendations may be stated in a sentence: intensive study (aural, oral and written work) of a connected text, dealing first with the pupil's environment and then shifting to the foreign environment. The aim is to lay a solid foundation in hearing, speaking, reading and writing the foreign language, so that any later desirable special acquisition, such as a competent reading knowledge, an adequate speaking knowledge or the ability to translate the foreign language or to use it as the medium of foreign correspondence, may be built upon a permanent foundation of essential knowledge and skill.

### *Details of Procedure*

*Pronunciation.* Pupils should, from the very beginning, be led to make a sharp distinction between sounds and symbols for sounds (either the conventional letters and other marks or special phonetic symbols) first in their own and then in the foreign language. For example, the "a" is a symbol in the following English words: *hat, any, hate, all, ask, sofa, ordinary;* yet the sound is different in every word. The procedure should be from the sound to the symbol, not vice versa. Much of the opposition to phonetics, although infinitely less now than formerly, is traceable to the failure to make this discrimination. In teaching sounds peculiar to a foreign language, that is, sounds not occurring in the vernacular, the procedure should be: (1) teach the pupil to *hear* it correctly, then (2) to reproduce it correctly, then (3) to associate sound and symbol, and finally (4) the variety of ways of expressing this sound in the conventional spelling. It is unreasonable to expect a pupil to pronounce French "u" (*symbol:* "y"), for example, if what he hears is "you" (*sym-*

*bols:* "ju"), which is exactly what took place in English when the Anglo-Saxons tried to imitate the French "u" of their Norman conquerors in such words as "view."

The orthography is a very difficult subject for such languages as English and French while a relatively easy matter for German, Italian and Spanish. Consequently phonetic notation is strongly recommended for French and left to the discretion of the teacher for the other modern foreign languages. A practical knowledge of phonetics is indispensable for the teacher. Fortunately, now, there is no college that does not provide such instruction in its regular courses and in its summer sessions.

Imitation is, of course, a vital factor in a good instruction in pronunciation and especially in intonation. The teacher must therefore be a model for the pupils and should articulate distinctly, insisting on clear, loud, distinct articulation on the part of pupils. Here, as elsewhere, the teacher's equipment and ideals of attainment will make for success or failure. The teacher who allows his pupils to mumble, the teacher who allows errors in pronunciation to pass unperceived, much less rebuked and corrected, will naturally get what he invites: a solvenly attitude toward pronunciation and consequent failure to attain a good pronunciation. Especially during the first year every new word should be pronounced first by the teacher and then by the pupils in concert and individually. Writing from dictation, reading aloud in class, with pressure upon pupils to read aloud at home, aural tests (both orally and in writing), chorus practice in reading, speaking; recitation of poetry and singing—all these are valuable, even indispensable, aids. There can be no valid objections to concert work in pronunciation and reading, if the teacher is alert and insists that pupils keep time in reading. Such concert reading gives an incentive to the good pupils to do their best and courage to the shy pupils afraid of making themselves conspicuous by their mistakes if they read alone. The alert teacher can always note mispronunciations of individuals and call attention to them without embarrassing the guilty ones.

The standard pronunciation for German is the one laid down in Viëtor's *Aussprachewörterbuch* (Leipzig, Reisland). All dialectic peculiarities should be avoided, even those found among large numbers of educated Germans but not universally accepted (such as the "sp" and "st" of the Hanoverians). Valuable aids to German pronunciation may be found, for example, in Viëtor's *Die Aussprache des Schriftdeutschen* (Leipzig, Reisland) and in Hempl's *German orthography and orthoëpy* (Ginn and Co.).

There are any number of excellent books for French pronunciation, such as those (published in this country) of Geddes, Tilly, Nicholson, Jack, Nitze and E. H. Wilkins. Consult also the following published abroad (and importable through any importing house, such as Brentano or G. E. Stechert, New York City, or J. J. Champenois, 1819 Broadway, New York City); Passy, *les sons du français* (Paris, Librairie Firmin-Didot); *La prononciation française*, Maurice Grammont (*traité pratique*), Librairie Delagrave, Paris; *Précis de phonétique comparée française et anglaise*, P. Genevrier, Paris, H. Didier, Editeur; *Comment on prononce le français*, Ph. Martinon, Librairie Larousse, Paris; *French intonation exercises*, by H. Klinghardt & M. de Fourmestraux, translated and adapted for English readers by M. L. Barker, Cambridge, W. Heffer & Sons, Ltd, 1923.

Excellent research work on Spanish pronunciation has been done by Professor T. Novarro Tomás whose books have been translated and published in this country. Most of the standard Spanish grammars for school use give, however, adequate indications for the high school student, except perhaps in the treatment of diphthongs and semi-consonants. Similarly, the standard grammars for Italian give generous help.

*Reading.* To read intelligently means to obtain from the printed page the meaning of the writer. This should be sharply distinguished from translation, although translation may be one of the means, but not the only one nor the most important, of acquiring an intelligent reading knowledge. Such a knowledge implies the ability to recognize and make use of words, phrases and idioms already learned; to observe the grammatical principles involved in the text and necessary for understanding the text.

The readings of the elementary course should be intensive rather than extensive. A small amount of easy reading matter should be thoroughly mastered, in order that a permanent foundation may be laid for the later acquisition of any specialized mastery, such as a real reading knowledge, a ready speaking knowledge. The syllabus committee believes that there can be no permanent possession of the fundamentals of the language without the intensive work in the elementary course here recommended. It has been argued that one learns by doing; that one learns to read by reading, for example; and attempts have been made, on the basis of this half-truth, to discredit intensive work, especially in its aural and oral aspects. That apothegm applies only when a certain stage of familiarity with a language has been reached (certainly beyond the elementary course here outlined). The American boy or girl who learns to read English by reading it certainly knew, before he started to learn to read, more real English than the same pupil knows French at the end of his elementary course; he understood, for example, all that was said to him and he could reply in English. It is *that basic* knowledge that should be given him by intensive work in French before the extensive reading is begun. If the teacher feels, however, that *in addition* to the intensive work of the elementary course here prescribed he can give also practice in sight-reading and reading for general comprehension of the content, such practice is recommended either as part of the regular class work or as extracurricular activity. Such extensive reading does give scope and breadth to the pupil's knowledge and probably also increases skill in reading, even at this early stage of his progress. This practice, however, should not lead to a sacrifice of the time and effort needed for the intensive work of foundation laying in the elementary course.

Generally speaking, at first new reading matter should be studied in the class under the direction of the teacher, the home work of the pupils consisting mainly in a review and fixing of what has been taught in the class. An important part of the home work is the reading aloud of the lesson by the pupils, after thorough drill on the pronunciation in class. Much attention should be given to proper phrasing, sentence stress and intonation. These difficult points can be taught if the teacher will frequently read aloud to the class and have the class read in chorus with him. Dictations and aural comprehension tests, if read in breath-groups, are also important aids and should be practised regularly. Nothing will help the pupil to grasp a sentence as a sentence (rather than a collection of isolated words) more surely than these types of exercises and tests. Besides, they are an established part of the Regents examinations and of the entrance examinations to many colleges, and form, therefore, a necessary part of the course.

Other exercises leading to sentence comprehension are:

1 Simple question and answer drill in the foreign language designed to bring out the content of the text. At first the books may be open, but after the second term of the first year they should usually be closed. Such drill focuses the attention of the pupils on the *French* (the French method of expressing known facts), whereas translation leaves the attention of the pupils focused on the English equivalent of the French text.

2 Paraphrases of individual words, expressions and idioms, and other simplification (in the foreign language) of difficult constructions

3 Both imitiative and free composition (oral and written résumés and adaptations) of the text, together with memorizing of familiar quotations and idioms

New words may be explained in the foreign language itself, as, for example, by known synonyms or opposites; by definitions; by the giving of examples (Caesar, Napoleon, as examples of warrior, conqueror, general; Judas Iscariot, as example of traitor, etc.). This procedure should not be permitted to consume an inordinate amount of time. To take a whole lesson to explain "Il pleut," for example, is unjustifiable. It had much better be translated into English.

*Selection of reading matter.* The best reading for the first year is undoubtedly the connected reading forming the basis of the grammar used. The unrelated sentence method has already been condemned. For the later years of the various courses the reading matter may be classified under the following headings:

1 Daily life. Such texts treat of the habits and customs, domestic and professional interests of the people

2 History, including geography and biography

3 Fiction, ranging from fairy tales and familiar anecdotes to works of literary eminence

4 Poetry

5 Prose drama

Doubtless a well-balanced course of sufficient duration would provide reading (1) from all these classifications, and (2) samples from the various periods or centuries. For the high school, however, the only general recommendations that can be made are: Choose texts that are (1) interesting in form and content; (2) suited to the age, sex and attainments of the pupils; (3) linguistically, that is, in vocabulary and syntax, suitable for oral work and the mastery of the fundamentals of the language; (4) national in character, that is, reflecting the point of view and the traits of character of the people whose language is being studied; (5) well-written, even if not eminent as literature, (6) worthy of being remembered in general or in certain particulars, for example, for character delineation, for invention, for rapidity of action.

Individual texts are not recommended by the syllabus committee, because such texts are legion; either all should be mentioned or none at all. Besides, excellent new texts appear every year, with a half-score of splendid companies; and a list mentioned in a syllabus that is not revised every year would discriminate unfairly against such texts. Most publishing companies, who are liberal with the distribution of their catalogs, will also send for examination any text which a teacher wishes to examine. Furthermore, it is an education in itself for a teacher to have to choose his own texts on the basis of a personal examination of them all.

It should be remembered that it is idle and time-wasting to try to discuss orally in class certain texts, such as *Hernani, Don Quixote, Wallenstein,* (generally speaking it is idle and time-wasting to try to read them in high school); but if a text is chosen for literary study in the third or fourth year, some other text suitable for oral work should be used to supplement it. Generally speaking, the reading of the intermediate and advanced courses should be of two kinds:

1 Rapid reading of easy texts of recent writers, to apply the power gained in the elementary course, to acquire fluency in reading, and to develop a taste for reading in the foreign language. Some of this work may be done as supplementary reading (extracurricular reading).

2 Careful reading of one or more masterpieces, especially in the advanced course (fourth year), with the object of deriving pleasure and profit from literature as such. This work should embody the procedure of the French method of *Explication de textes* (life of the author, his times, grammatical questions, idioms, literary and historical allusions etc.).

Although, in the intermediate course, one drama may be read (for example: *Wilhelm Tell,* in German), preference should ordinarily be given to nineteenth and twentieth century narrative prose. The study of literature and literary movements is properly a subject for the college and the university rather than for the high school, at least in foreign languages.

*Grammar.* The study of grammar should be carried on for two distinct purposes. It should, in the first place, especially in case the pupils have never before studied any foreign language, serve to give them an insight into the mechanism of language, bringing into clearness those fundamental grammatical concepts which are absent or vague in their minds in connection with the mother tongue. Secondly, it should work toward creating correct speech habits in the foreign language. The best grammar for high school purposes will show the language machinery all set up for demonstration, in short, complete language units, designed for the particular grammatical knowledge to be imparted. The unrelated sentence method is wholly to be deprecated. The grammatical exercises should be based upon a connected text in the foreign language, dealing first with the environmental vocabulary of the pupils, then with the foreign environment. This work can be done very largely without recourse to the mother tongue, provided the grammar used is adapted to the purposes here indicated. The type exercises are: transformation of sentences (involving gender, number, tense relations, mode), filling in of forms and inflections, specially designed conversational exercises involving particular points of grammar. The committing to memory of paradigms of declensions and conjugations is a minor but necessary part of the grammar work of the elementary course. In order that this work may not become mechanical, the forms should be used in complete sentences; that is, *functional* grammar is recommended instead of *formal* grammar.

Whenever possible, grammar should be taught inductively; that is, examples should come before rules, observations of concrete instances should precede generalizations. The learning of abstract rules is of very little value unless these rules become effective; that is, result in practical, usable knowledge of the principles of the language in reading, writing and speaking. Learning examples is more important than learning rules.

Attention to grammar should be continuous throughout the course, although the assignment of formal grammar lessons in a special grammar after the third year is to be deprecated. The best grammatical exercises in the third year are those which aim to give the pupils a sure command of topics, such as, for example, pronouns—personal, relative, demonstrative, interrogative; adjectives—agreements and position; verbs—moods and tenses. The teacher should ask himself: How much do my pupils know about such and such a topic? If a complete test should be given on a *single* topic, how many of the pupils would know *all* the items? In other words, the work in grammar of the intermediate and advanced courses aims at a systematization of grammatical knowledge in functional aspects. It is probably best to require even in the third year a review of the grammatical principles studied in the elementary course, together with the study of such topics and principles as are needed in reading and speaking and writing the language. This necessitates the use of a grammar specially designed for the intermediate course or a review grammar written for the same purposes. For the fourth year (the so-called advanced course) no special grammatical text is advised. There may well be a review by topics of the grammatical material of the course so far pursued, but the new grammatical facts met with in the reading may best be treated as they occur in the texts read. For review purposes pupils may at times be required to give reasons for the use of cases, tenses and modes, to explain the formation of words, to account for word order and the like, especially when such explanations would help clear up any difficulties in the text. When reading as such is the order of the day's lesson, however, grammatical drill should be put in the background. The teacher should remember that grammar is not an end in itself but a means to an end—a usable knowledge of the foreign language.

*Translation.* 1 *From the foreign language.* Many teachers bar translation from the foreign language into English. Such teachers claim that it leads to the habit of word analysis, a deciphering instead of a real reading knowledge. This is probably both true and false, according to the method employed. If translation is resorted to merely to bring out the meaning or to test the pupil's comprehension, and if, then, attention is focused on the foreign expression (word, phrase, idiom) with adequate drill in the use of such expression, the main evil of translation is obviated.

2 *Into the foreign language.* The same group of teachers that would bar translation into the vernacular divide sharply into two groups in reference to translation into the foreign language; one in favor, the other against. On the whole, therefore, by far the greatest number of teachers feel that there is a sharp necessity for translation (or retranslation) from English into the foreign language. This exercise should be used only after the text on which it is based has been worked over orally and the direct method exercises (question and answer drill, filling in of blanks etc.) have been done. The translation into the foreign language then serves to fix the foreign equivalent in the mind. Generally speaking, this is an assignment for home work, to be written in ink on every other line. In the class exercise, the pupils may be expected to give the translation from the text, without looking at the written papers. Sentence by sentence the exercise is written on the board after each sentence has been given orally, still from the text and not from the home work. Then, as the board work is corrected, the papers may be corrected. Such corrections should be made in pencil on the blank line. Such an exercise makes for the maximum of concentration on (*a*) retention of the home work in the mind, rather than a feeling that, once it is down on paper, it may be forgotten; and (*b*) the correction of each sentence by all the pupils at the same time.

*Composition.* Prose composition in the elementary and intermediate courses should take the form of paraphrasing a carefully studied model (in connected discourse) in the foreign language, rather than that of piecing together words and phrases to form new language material. This composition may be based upon any text that is suited for reading purposes. It may take the form of written answers to simple or comprehensive questions, of abstracts (or résumés) and of free reproduction. It may be begun in the first year by writing answers in the foreign language to questions on the reading matter and by relating short stories and anecdotes, or parts of the text read (especially integral situations, with a definite title, beginning, middle and end), either freely reproduced or translated from a prepared version in English. Later, simple descriptions and letters with given context, dealing especially with the environment of the pupil (home and school relations, games, personal interests) carefully prepared in class, that is, with given vocabulary and clearly defined headings and subheadings, may be written. Topics for composition should not involve a vocabulary with which the pupils can not reasonably be expected to be familiar. Especially should no topic be assigned for written work that has not been treated orally in class.

***Oral and written work.*** The major part of the recitation should be oral and should be conducted in the foreign language. The classroom directions may be gradually introduced phrase after phrase, with a view of making the foreign language more and more the medium of instruction. The main purpose of this type of oral work is drill; drill on vocabulary, drill on forms, agreements, sentence structure. Incidentally, it enables pupils to grasp sentence units as such, in contradistinction to word units. Most of this oral work should be based upon the text, in connected discourse, naturally. Pupils should be required to frame questions in the foreign language, as well as answer them.

Oral work should be followed by written work. Some of this work may be assigned as home tasks; for example, copying an exercise, transforming sentences, writing questions and answers based upon the text, filling in blanks, retranslation into the foreign language etc. In class it may take the form of writing from dictation, writing answers to questions based upon a passage read, that is, aural comprehension tests, or writing résumés or composing directly on a given topic connected with the reading, that is, free composition. In the usual question and answer drill, in class, the work may be done first orally and then in writing, on the board. When one pupil has answered a question, he, or another, may be sent to the board to write question and answer, the work of the class going on in the meantime. Before the end of the recitation some time should be taken for criticism of the board work by the class as a whole.

If the text read does not lend itself readily to oral work (as is usually the case with works of literary merit, and especially of the classics), simple short stories and ancedotes may be used for the aural and oral work. In the third and fourth years, pupils may be encouraged to correspond with secondary school pupils of the country whose language is being studied. (This correspondence may be initiated through the Peabody Institute, Nashville, Tenn.)

While the ability to speak and write the foreign language may not have so much practical or commercial value in this country as it has in Europe, and while even a four-year course is too short a time to acquire these abilities to any considerable degree, yet such exercises are to be commended for all pupils for the following reasons: (1) multiple-sense appeal is superior to an appeal to one organ, the eye; (2) oral and aural work enable pupils to grasp sentence units as such, in a way utterly impossible to the eye, in elementary foreign language study; and (3) the element of interest provided by exercises in aural comprehension, oral discussion and written résumés is a pedagogical factor of which the teacher should take advantage. Most pupils desire ardently to be able to understand the foreign language when spoken and to speak it.

*Intensive and extensive work.* The Modern Language Study has made a strong plea for extensive reading in the foreign language. The psychological motivation of the argument is the dictum that one learns by doing: one learns to swim by swimming, to read by reading. The analogy advanced is that of the learning to read in the vernacular. It should not be forgotten, however, that an American pupil in the grades of the elementary school, learning to read English, already *knows* English (to a limited extent, to be sure; but he does know it). In the foreign language work, the aim should be to give to the pupils something like this elementary knowledge of the foreign language—a certain limited command of the language in hearing and understanding, in speaking, reading and writing. It is the sense of the syllabus committee that only after this preliminary intensive work is extensive reading in order. Pupils will not, can not, remember work that is done extensively, hurriedly, in the early stages of foreign language study. It is also true, however, that the pupils will have little range or scope in reading unless there is gradually introduced a program of extensive reading. This reading may (and probably should) take the form of much easy reading, either as classroom activity or as extra reading assignments (reading for content alone). This work may be tested in English or in the foreign language, at the option of the teacher.

## GENERAL METHOD

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(pp. 57–61) The first step toward effective teaching or learning is to decide on the objectives. The second is to decide on the best methods of attaining these. Before going into detailed discussion of methods of teaching such varied elements of the language course as pronunciation, conversation, grammar, writing, word and idiom study, reading, study of the foreign civilization and literature, it is important to consider the matter of a governing principle for the course as a whole. We shall not discuss method historically[1] nor shall we discuss commercial language systems, but will rather attempt to indicate the various methods of approach common in high schools and colleges and the varying emphases that result from these.

That there is a considerable variation in method used in our schools has been shown by the surveys made in 1929 by the Modern Foreign Language Study, in 1926 by Gosling, and in 1936 by Douglass. This lack of unanimity as to method is also seen by Rice [2] as a serious menace to the effectiveness of language teaching. He expresses the belief that in the inevitable progression of pupils from one teacher or from one school to another this variety of method "spells repetition, poor preparation of succeeding classes, and discouragement of the student." Proper supervisory policies tend to reduce the lack of unity in basic method within any language department or school system, but the hope of developing accord among language teachers as a whole seems more remote.

## METHOD

Method was inquired into by Gosling [3] through a questionnaire listing three general classifications of method—direct, grammatical, and mixed.

While these three classifications are hardly adequate for purposes of the present discussion, they indicate roughly the types of approach common in the language course and have a fairly definite and widely understood meaning, as was indicated by the fact that they were evidently readily interpreted by the teachers answering the questionnaire. "Direct" method is one in which the mother tongue is barred from the classroom; the "grammatical" or "grammar-translation" method is a process of translating and studying grammatical rules and principles; the "mixed" method is a compromise of the two, a method that we shall more commonly refer to as "eclectic."

Although names applied to anything so largely controlled by the human element and personal considerations as is a teaching method must necessarily be generally descriptive rather than narrowly restrictive, there is definite value in their use. Some discussion of methods generally identified by descriptive labels and of their comparative weaknesses and merits may have considerable significance as a means of orienting the thought of the teacher toward his general teaching plan as well as toward the problem of achieving specific objectives in the various realms of subject matter. Although the terms used in the discussion throughout this book differentiate more finely among methods than do the three terms used by Gosling, they indicate the same general variations in essential viewpoint.

The Gosling survey found thirteen of the cities canvassed to be using the direct, and nineteen a mixed, method. This preference for the mixed method involved a definite shift from, and an enriching of, the older grammar-translation method that had for long held sway, and marked great progress in the reform of language teaching in general. There were no modern-language teachers who reported allegiance to the grammar-translation method, although forty-three Latin teachers clung to it. It is interesting to note, however, that the Latin teachers solicited all evidently understood the significance of all three terms, although they had adopted the direct method in only two instances. It was obviously not ignorance of the new method that kept them from using it. In fact some of its principles had been combined with those of the grammar method in a majority of the cases reporting. But conservatism in adopting the new method *in toto* marked the Latin teaching.

In a study made by Douglass in 1936[4] an eclectic method was again found to predominate. The direct method was found used in modern-language courses in nine cases; a modified direct method—that is, an eclectic method—in forty-five; and the grammar-translation method only once. This study shows the field to be divided, as the Gosling report showed it, between the direct and the eclectic methods, with the latter predominating. Syllabi of junior high schools from various large cities and all parts of the country indicate this situation to maintain generally.

The Modern Foreign Language Study in 1929 issued to a selected list of superior schools a questionnaire regarding method. It was shown by the answers that in these schools the majority of teachers were using in the first two years either a direct or an eclectic method. The commonly employed method throughout the language courses was a direct-eclectic one or a grammar-translation plan enriched by various devices from the direct-eclectic method. This situation did not prevail, however, in the common run of schools throughout the country. If one visited schools widely or examined pupils from secondary schools—particularly on such a scale as the College Entrance Examination Board did—inspected teacher-training courses in colleges, visited college beginners' classes, studied syllabi or school programs, or noted the large sales of grammar-translation-method textbooks, one saw that in practice we were far removed from the direct method.

The reasons for this failure to adopt a direct method in actual practice were several. Teachers were not trained to use the method; the courses were too short for its effective functioning; there were not enough direct-method textbooks; and the College Entrance Board was still testing on the basis of a grammar-translation method. Moreover the spoken language is much more difficult to learn that the written language is. For while more than forty per cent of the five thousand most frequently used French and German words—possibly Spanish and Italian words also—are either similar in spelling to the corresponding English words or are easily inferred from context in reading,[5] practically all of them are new words if used actively. Much time and energy are accordingly required in the direct method for attaining skills that have little or no importance for the average student. For the opinion of practical businessmen was generally accepted that speaking knowledge of a foreign language is not needed for trading purposes, that it is generally possible to use English in carrying on business with foreign countries. A method that aims, as the direct method does, at achievement of fourfold learning is therefore wasteful for the mass of our students.

In the light of recent study we are wondering today why we should ever have embraced the direct method in any but the most favorable set-ups in high schools, except that we saw the inadequacies of the grammar-translation method, even if only reading ability was the objective. With secondary and college students, a group that was more highly selected in the first decade of this century and possessed a consequently higher level of intellectual quality than it has today, results from the new method were comparatively good, though, and there were no positive norms of achievement available to call attention to the inadequacy of the reading ability developed by it. As a matter of fact, however, even the most ardent reformers were not using pure direct method but an eclectic plan, with reading as the chief aim and enough oral practice for *Sprachgefühl* and to start future teachers of foreign languages on their way. We did not practice segregation into strong and weak sections as the method required, for usually the numbers taking the language courses were too small to permit such sectioning of classes. Some teachers were, however, providing special treatment for various groups within their classes.

## NOTES

1. For a terse historical statement of method, see the *Report of the Committee of Twelve,* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1905. L. Bahlsen's *The Teaching of Modern Languages,* Ginn & Co., Boston, 1903, also gives a short account.

2. G. A. Rice, "An Analysis of the Classroom Practices of 210 Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," in *Studies in Modern Language Teaching,* pp. 448–456, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930.

3. *Op. cit.*

4. A. A. Douglass, "The Next Steps in Improving the Secondary Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education,* Vol. 11 (April, 1936), pp. 205–214.

5. C. H. Handschin, "The Question of the Most Economical Learning of Vocabulary," *MLJ,* Vol. 17 (Dec., 1932), pp. 195–199, Cf. also C. F. Sparkman, "Bilingual Reading Texts for Beginners," *MLJ,* Vol. 15 (May, 1930), pp. 201–212, and "A Neglected Item in Teaching Reading," *MLF,* Vol. 15 (June, 1930), pp. 110–111. See too H. R. Huse, *Psychology of Foreign Language Study,* University of North Carolina Press, 1931.

# METHODOLOGY OF THE A.S.T.P.

[From *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program,* Report of a Special Committee, Prepared for The Commission on Trends in Education, The Modern Language Association of America, N. Y. 1944, pp. 4–5.]

## METHODOLOGY

"War-time requirements necessitate that AST Language instruction be intensive in character. *However, this does not imply that the so-called "intensive method" must be used. Any methodology which will achieve the objective outlined above is acceptable.* Therefore, the following remarks are to be understood as suggestive, not prescriptive. Provision is made in the curriculum for fifteen contact hours of language study. These can be effectively used in accordance with the following plan:

a. One-hour demonstrations, three days a week, by the senior instructor of the course on the structure (pronunciation, grammar, syntax, word-formation, etc.) of the language;

b. Two-hour drill sessions, six days a week, in the presence of a drill-master who is a colloquial speaker of the language, preferably native-born. Work in drill sessions is under supervision of the senior instructor to assure that it is keyed to demonstrations on structure.

The demonstrations on the structure of the language should be so planned that all the essential structural characteristics of the language will be presented during the course and in the order of difficulty which they constitute for the American learner. The supervised drill sessions should give the trainees intensive practice in the form of conversations which exemplify principles brought out in the immediately preceding demonstration on structure. They should further provide review drill on the material previously covered.

It is of crucial importance that the number of trainees in supervised drill sessions be kept small. In no case should the number exceed ten. In general, an instructional team will consist of:

a. One senior instructor for each assignment of eighty men;

b. Four drill-masters for each eighty men.

If the so-called "intensive method" is followed, the time of the senior instructor would be absorbed in offering the three demonstrations a week on structure, and in supervising the drill-masters. Each drill-master would handle the two two-hour sections of ten men each per day. The drill-masters need not be trained teachers; their chief function is to speak their own language. With very brief training, they can be taught to draw the men out and encourage them to practice on the limited materials with which they work in each session in accordance with the plan of the course. Care must be exercised to prevent the drill-masters from misinterpreting their function and assuming the role of teaching the structure of the language. This is properly taken care of in the demonstrations given by the senior instructor, and the drill sessions should be devoted entirely to practice. Where variants of this method are used the dominant emphasis should continue to be on the drill sessions.

This system of small, supervised drill sessions will enable institutions to arrange separate sections in accordance with the varying levels of linguistic acuity which will be found among trainees.

As far as practicable, men studying the same language should be housed and messed together and otherwise encouraged to talk the language they are studying."

## METHOD OF THE INTENSIVE LANGUAGE PROGRAM

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[From *The Language Crutch and the Mixed Vernacular, GQ,* XX, 2, March 1947, 89–91.]

The *A.S.T.P. Survey* of the Modern Language Association[1] and the special *A.S.T.P.* Issue of the GERMAN QUARTERLY[2] have shown us the wide variance of interpretation given by German teachers throughout the country to the specific objectives and methodology recommended for the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies.[3] In fact, such wide variance was to be expected, since the Army directives explicitly stated that "Any methodology which will achieve the objective . . . is acceptable." The advantages of allowing such leeway to the teacher are obvious because they permitted adaptation to specific situations. However, the multiplicity of methods has one real disadvantage. It makes an objective evaluation of results well-nigh impossible. Besides, no uniform series of objective tests had been devised and administered to the Army trainees at the time they completed their courses. And, as indicated above, the methods used differed in almost every college. We cannot significantly correlate method with achievement where method is a variable and achievement is a matter of subjective opinion. Thus it would seem that the possibility of an objective evaluation of the over-all results achieved in the A.S.T.P. is irretrievably lost.

We are on a surer foundation, however, if we turn our attention to the methods actually employed by those textbook writers who specifically produced their texts in accordance with the objectives and recommended methodology of the Intensive Language Program. Here, at least, we are confronted with a definite, printed record. There is a possibility of measuring the stated aim against the actual method employed in the text and to determine whether the method is conducive to the aim. It may be argued that method is unimportant to the inspired teacher, but surely we can agree that of a possible choice of methods, that one which is most conducive to the specific aim is to be preferred, and that one which runs counter to the specific aim is to be rejected. Our criteria need only be what modern psychologists have taught us about the laws of learning, particularly as applied to modern-language instruction. To be sure, we shall obtain no sweeping conclusions regarding the achievements of the A.S.T.P., but at least we shall have attempted to isolate one objective aspect of the program and to study its features.

The most authoritative example we have of the method of instruction worked out for the Intensive Language Program is the War Department Education Manual entitled *SPOKEN GERMAN.*[4] Its stated aim is to teach the speaking and understanding of colloquial German. The method, as outlined in the *Introduction* and followed in the textbook proper, can be briefly summarized as follows: 1. mimicry-memorizing of "Basic Sentences" with phonetic analysis and pronunciation drill ("Hints on Pronunciation"); 2. analysis of accidence and syntax ("Word Study"); 3. recall drill ("Review of Basic Sentences"); aural-oral exercise ("Listening In"); 5. oral exercises based on "Conversations" outlined in English.

The learning procedure prescribed by the textbook is the following. An English-speaking "group leader" first reads an English sentence while the "group" reads it silently. Then a native German "guide" reads the German sentence corresponding to the English. The group looks at a phonetic transcription of the German sentence as it is being spoken and then repeats the German. The procedure calls for many such repetitions both in chorus and individually. In reviewing the "Basic Sentences" learned in this way, there is one stage in which the German is covered up, the group looks at the English and tries to recall the German. Another stage of the review calls for the reverse process, i.e. only the German is left visible and the group tries to recall the English.

Let us examine this procedure, first from the point of view of methodological theory, and second, from the point of view of the learner.

The theory seems to be that the learning of a foreign language proceeds from the vernacular. To be sure, the vernacular is not emphasized orally, being heard only once for each equivalent foreign-language unit, and thereafter presumably serving as a visual check on the meaning of the foreign-language unit. Evidently, the idea is to establish an associational bond between equivalent units of meaning in the two languages. The "Word Study" and "Listening In" stages are designed respectively to extend the range of control over grammatical forms, and to provide aural-oral training. The "Conversation" provides only a general conversational situation. The intention is to recall and use a suitable German word, expression or sentence that fits the situation. Formulation of sentences in English with subsequent translation into German is discouraged by overlearning and drill, which make for automatic response in the foreign language.

The theory is essentially sound. It avoids the extremes of the "pure direct method" that aims at eliminating the vernacular entirely. It candidly recognizes the fact that the vernacular can never be wholly submerged in students whose native speech patterns have already been established. Besides, the self-teaching aim of the book, which may be used without the presence of a qualified instructor, precludes any attempt at the "pure direct method." This may lead to an undesirable overemphasis of the English language in a work designed to teach German, but the fault is mitigated by the fact that the major part of the English sentences in the book exercises only a visual impression, i.e. it is read silently by the student, and only at such times as the meaning of the German escapes him. Theoretically, a visual impression alone should be less permanent than the combined visual impression and articulatory practice that is devoted to the German. The great danger of any approach through the vernacular is that of word-for-word translation. But in this method, the danger is largely obviated by the overlearning of the memorized stock of German words and phrases and their automatic "situational recall." There can be no quarrel with the method analyzed above. It is well conceived both with respect to the objective and the particular teaching situation.

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## NOTES

1. *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program*, Prepared for the Commission on Trends in Education of The Modern Language Association of America, New York, 1944.

2. November, 1944.

3. Reprinted in both of the above-mentioned sources.

4. EM 518, EM 519, by Moulton and Moulton, published for the United States Armed Forces Institute by the Linguistic Society of America and the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, Madison, Wisconsin, 1944. An identical edition is published by Henry Holt and Company, New York.

# 7 : PROGRAMS, PROJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

## FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THE CLEVELAND PLAN

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[From *The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages,* E. B. de Sauzé, pp. 8–21; The John C. Winston Co., Phila., 1929. Reprinted by permission of the author and publishers.]

It is obviously impossible in the length of this manual to explain or even enumerate all the fundamental principles that our experiments have demonstrated to our satisfaction to constitute a safe and sound basis to a modern language pedagogy. It will suffice to present the most important ones, those that mainly control our present practice in Cleveland.

*Interest.* The most vital problem in any classroom is how to stimulate and retain the interest of the pupils. Interest, attention, concentration, learning, cannot be separated and teaching or learning is indeed a dreary, almost an impossible task without them. Forcible feeding, mental as well as physical, is a nasty operation and is seldom successful. "The art of teaching," says A. France, "is only the art of interesting, of arousing curiosity, and curiosity is active only in happy minds." Interest is the oil of the machinery of education; without it the wheels may go around, but there is friction, heat, and prompt stopping. The doctrine of interest does not mean the emasculation of the subject by removing all difficulties; the little girl who once told her teacher, "Now what are you going to amuse us with today," was perfectly conscious and pointedly critical of that type of teaching supposedly interesting. Students respect a teacher who makes them apply themselves and they enjoy a subject that has enough substance to challenge their efforts.

Interest is maintained when the material to be taught is carefully organized along sound laws of learning, when the students find in the subject a constant challenge to solve carefully graded difficulties, and when the technique of introducing the new elements follows correct psychological and pedagogical practice.

*Selection of Material.* Let us examine the practical application of this doctrine of interest in the field of a foreign language. First of all, how does it affect the selection of the material to be taught? It is an accepted principle that we deal well only with things that are within our range of experience. When a student learns a new language, he really is transferring his acquired experience from his mother tongue to the new language. He is learning a second mode of expressing this same experience. This transfer will be all the more easily and successfully effected if the elements are introduced along the same fundamental sequence and relation that prevailed when he learned his mother tongue. The topics introduced for reading or speaking must be a close counterpart of his experience; they should at first center around his daily activities, home, school, sports, restaurants, amusements, etc.; later, when he already has mastered this expression of his elemental interests, his curiosity may be aroused into reading and speaking about the foreign nation.

*Vocabulary.* A safe and sane criterion to follow in establishing a vocabulary for a first year course of study, would be to group carefully the most elemental activities of a student of a given age, and to determine the vocabulary essential to the "living" again of each activity in the new language. Common sense here would save the tragic mistake of establishing a vocabulary for first year, not on that previous experience of the student, but on a word count of books to be read in advanced classes. This word count, scientific as it may seem at first glance, satisfactory as it may be to the educational expert who speculates at his desk, far from a close contact with the twelve to fourteen year old pupils, is after all a most unsatisfactory, unscientific approach to the problem. Every language is learned by a certain sequence which progresses upward, not downward. To quote here Prof. Louis Marchand: "every Englishman learns 'red' before 'crimson,' 'end' before 'extremity,' 'always' and the verb 'to last' before 'eternal,' 'to see' before 'visible' and 'vision.'" Futhermore, concrete expressions are not only learned first but are more easily explained and retained. It seems very poor pedagogy therefore to leave the important matter of the right vocabulary to be introduced first to the hazard of a word count based on probable "classics" to be read. The vocabulary in *Cours Pratique* is based upon elemental experience.

*Association.* This fundamental vocabulary should be introduced not as detached words, but as a connected story. The unit in a language is the sentence. To require of a class to memorize a list of detached words is about as thrilling and as successful as learning a list of telephone numbers. Association is the fundamental law of memory. Since our aim is also to train the student to read, we must introduce him very early to a text that expresses thought and not to a haphazard collection of sentences that jump from the cow to the moon and create in the mind of the student the distinct impression that the new language is not capable of conveying thought, but only serves to illustrate grammatical relationship.

Let us see now how that carefully organized material may be introduced to the class in a manner that will again arouse and sustain the interest. We found some definite principles of pedagogy and psychology that apply closely to the learning of linguistic elements.

***Single Emphasis.*** Every experiment conducted to determine the amount of grammatical material to introduce at one time demonstrated conclusively that considerable confusion was avoided and time ultimately was saved when we presented those elements one at a time, when we split them into small units, and when we even separated the exceptions from the rule. This practice which we labelled "single emphasis" focused the mind of the student on one difficulty instead of exposing it to several, causing thereby a blurring of the picture. In French, for example, it was found more efficient not to combine in one lesson even related elements like the contractions of the definite articles, the partitives, the exceptions to the rule of the partitives. In German only one gender is introduced at first and of course only in the nominative case. In Latin one declension and one case of that declension constitute a unit of presentation.

***Incubation.*** Not only should those elements be introduced one at a time, split to the nearest possible unit (and the younger the student, the smaller the unit), but we should linger long enough on that element to give the student time for assimilating, for mastering that element. We find another fundamental principle operating here, that of "incubation." A student should have not only an understanding of a rule, but he should have "assimilated" it through a sufficient series of drills, through repeated use until he has acquired a ready command of that rule. Difficulties still unconquered should not meet new difficulties on the way. To borrow an example from the field of physiology, we should not present the student with another meal merely because he has finished eating. Ample time should be allowed for digestion. As a rule the courses of study in languages have been unduly rich. We have conducted a mad "steeplechase" through the textbooks, creating thereby an almost hopeless confusion of facts and impressions. In our experiments we calculated that it takes approximately five recitations in the Senior High School and seven to eight in the Junior High School before one unit of grammar skillfully woven into a connected text containing 30 new words may be said to be reasonably well mastered to the point where it is safe to proceed to the next unit.

*Intensive vs. Extensive.* One may object here that this careful procedure runs contrary to a tendency that has been noted in many schools and colleges and that emphasizes quantity rather than quality in the assignment and recitations of classes studying foreign languages. There are some who believe that extensive reading is more productive of results than the intensive process which is here advocated. It all depends upon the conception that one has of a "reading knowledge." Here as in all problems it may help to start with a definition. Reading from the standpoint of the reader is, as already stated, an instantaneous flashing of the meaning of the sentence read without the intermediary of the mother tongue. Any reading that is interrupted too often for looking up unknown elements or that is slowed up by being sensed first through English prevents the student from appreciating shades of meaning, beauty of form, esthetic value of the text read. In the early stages of instruction we are concerned primarily with the acquisition of "skills"; the reading "skill" in the sense of the above definition is best secured through careful study of limited material. The writer after examining many Freshmen entering French classes in several universities came to formulate the following proposition: the knowledge of a foreign language is in inverse ratio to the number of books read in a given time. It may be added that the perusing of countless pages just to discover the approximate meaning of those pages is not only grossly inefficient as a means of acquiring a real reading power, but it also leads the student into habits of carelessness, slovenliness, and into an unscientific attitude toward the whole problem of language study which he assumes to be one purely of habituation resulting from a series of unsystematic contacts. The writer is fearful for the future of American scholarship if such rapid reading should again be introduced into our halls of learning.

*Correct Association.* We noticed early in our experiment that learning by rote in the conventional way elements of grammar such as conjugations, was causing wrong habituation through associations that inhibited spontaneous use of the particular person of the verb needed. Who has not observed the pathetic demeanor of the student who in order to find the French for "we go" has to start with the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd singular before coming to the form wanted?

*Challenge.* In attempting to find the most efficient, the most impressive way of introducing new elements of language, of crossing the bridge from the known to the unknown, we discovered the tremendous value of the principle of "challenge." All teachers who have been robbed of valuable time by students wasting a great deal of it solving puzzles or cross-words are painfully aware of the great fascination that such amusements hold for young and old. The psychological explanation for such a stubborn endeavor to find the answer to puzzles is very evidently to be found in the automatic, instinctive reaction of any one to a challenge. Our first movement is to take it up. This psychological reaction explains the superiority of the inductive process as a teaching device.

*Inductive Process.* Instead of presenting the student with a rule on a platter, we set up a few carefully chosen illustrations of that rule and we lead him to discover through skillful guidance the relationship of the new element to others previously mastered and to formulate his observations into a law governing those cases. The inductive process has the following advantages: it causes concentration, it sustains interest, it gives to the neurones the stimulation that comes from the satisfaction of having accomplished by one's own efforts a worthwhile and difficult task, it assists the memory which retains more easily and more permanently any element that has been carefully observed and stayed with. Another and an exceedingly valuable by-product resulting from the use of the "challenge" device is the training that the student receives in the most important tool of research: the inductive method. The writer has an unshakable belief that such mental habits are transferable not only to the related field of language, but to any situation requiring systematic observation and careful generalization.

*Genesis of New Words.* The same technique of challenge is used successfully in the teaching of new vocabulary elements incidental to reading. There are three ways of dealing with the genesis of unknown words: they may either be translated into the mother tongue, or be pointed to, or explained by paraphrasing. The first method, alas! is the easiest and therefore still in general use in spite of the fact that it is most inefficient. Translation causes no challenge, it gives the fact too freely, and creates but a fleeting impression on the brain cells. The second method is better, as it brings in visualization. The third one, which consists in explaining new words with the help of elements previously taught, is far superior to all others, as it is based on challenge and uses the inductive process. It has the added advantage of creating associations by linking the new word with others related to it and of framing it into the relationship of cause to effect or succession in time.

*Repetition.* The "paraphrase" device solves also the most puzzling problem of language learning, repetition, by compelling almost automatically every teacher to review previously taught material. It prevents the creation of separate, uncommunicating compartments called lessons, each in turn seen, then left behind like stations along the railroad track. Repetition is necessary to produce habituation, that stage of spontaneous recognition or use of the language so essential if students are ever to read or speak fluently.

*Spontaneity.* Spontaneity comes from repetition. We recognize two stages of knowledge of a language: the "conscious" one, during which we use the language slowly, applying rules of grammar, reasoning various relationships as we proceed. The second one, which I shall call the "automatic" stage, when we speak, read, write the language substantially like our mother tongue. It is very evident that students must reach that automatic stage if they are ever to read intelligently or speak or write with reasonable ease. In our experiments we found that an interval of eight weeks usually intervened between the introduction of a new form and a new vocabulary, and the "automatic" use of that form and vocabulary, provided, of course, those elements after being stayed with for five recitations had been repeated at least three times a week for the following seven weeks. The only satisfactory method of repetition that we succeeded in working out was the scheme of "paraphrase." As an illustration—suppose that I wish to explain the word "glace." Instead of saying: "Glace means ice," or pointing to a piece of ice in a picture, I may paraphrase it in the following manner, selecting, of course, only those words and forms previously taught: "En été l'eau du lac est *liquide; en hiver l'eau du lac n'est pas liquide, elle est solide*; l'eau solide est de la glace." This simple explanation contains all the challenge of a cross-word puzzle or a conundrum, and it never fails to command attention and cause concentration. After repeating this description of the word "glace" two or three times, I notice through a gleam in the eyes of many students that the word has been understood. In order to check on this understanding, and for the purpose of imprinting "glace" in a deeper groove on the memory cells, the word is introduced further in a series of sentences such as: En quelle saison y a-t-il de la glace? Y a-t-il de la glace au printemps? en été? en hiver? Y a-t-il de la glace maintenant? Fait-il chaud, quand il y a de la glace sur le lac? etc. . . .

*Oral.* Of all the various devices of technique that we use in our teaching, the most efficient, the most stimulating, indeed the most essential to success is the oral and aural use of the language. Interest is maintained always at its highest pitch through speaking. It is without question the most natural way of satisfying the innate desire of the student of a language to use that language; with younger students it caters to their "love of doing," their desire to manipulate and put to use every material, every new acquisition. Every human being is endowed with the inherited ability to learn language by ear; because countless generations have dealt with language in terms of sounds and only comparatively recently has language become a matter of letters, all of us have an atavistic aptitude for receiving linguistic facts more vividly, more satisfyingly through the ear; the eye constitutes merely an auxiliary organ, one that should be used only as a second and never as a first organ of reception. One of our experiments showed that it takes an average child with his auditory and visual senses equally developed one hundred "seeings" of an abstract word before he has an automatic recognition of its written form, while twenty "hearings" plus five "seeings" are sufficient to imprint the same word in a deep groove upon the memory cells, and to make it available for purposes both of reading and conversing.

The form of oral practice we use is not a hit-or-miss series of questions without an object except possibly the increase of a stock of ready-made sentences. It is a "purposeful" exercise aiming at the mastery through oral use of fundamental principles of grammar and a connected topic. It may take the form not only of questions but also of dramatization, by taking advantage of the dramatic instinct which is so strong in the junior and even in the senior high school student.

*Reading and Writing.* While linguistic elements are received by the brain with greater vividness when they are presented through the ear, it is quite evident, however, that with students of high school age there is little automatic transfer from the sound to the written form, and that we must train the student to reason sounds in terms of letters through sufficient drill in reading and writing. The sequence that we found most efficient was the following: the ear receives a sound, the brain reasons that sound in terms of letters, the hand writes the word, the word is read aloud.

*When to Read a "Classic."* For educational reasons we are anxious to induce in the student habits of precision, accuracy, careful analysis, and a scientific attitude toward language. We feel, therefore, that it is a dangerous practice to assign a so-called "classic," i. e., a book written by a Frenchman for Frenchmen, before the student has a sufficient knowledge of the fundamentals of the French language to enable him to account for the forms found and before he has mastered a sufficiently large vocabulary to read with some ease instead of painfully deciphering each word. To introduce such a reading text in the first year, even the apparently simple Contes de Fées, at a stage when it is obviously impossible for the student to reason out intelligently grammatical constructions met in the text, leads the student to habits of slovenliness and encourages him to adopt the comfortable practice of "ducking" under difficulties rather than of confronting them. We value so much this scientific attitude of our students toward the language that in our course of study we postpone all reading of such "classics" until the second year. During the first year reading is limited to a "prepared" text containing many pages of "lectures" each one carefully written around a topic and one major fundamental of grammar.

*French the Medium of Instruction.* Very early in our experiment we found that classes in which the foreign language was used exclusively as a medium of instruction were showing appreciably better results than others in which English was used part of the time. Students, particularly those in the junior high school, are very sensitive to this imponderable called the "class atmosphere." They take special pride in the fact that no English is allowed and in some instances they voluntarily impose a fine for any unnecessary English word. The only English permitted is the word or sentence introduced in the foreign language for the express purpose of clarifying a point of grammar or an idiomatic expression. Even rules of grammar may be dealt with in the foreign language, provided the teacher uses ingenuity and limits himself to simple expressions. We grant, of course, that the whole course of study must be organized with that technique in view. Some may object that we complicate the problem by introducing in French a number of useless words belonging to grammatical terminology. By actual count, however, we found only three or four expressions that might be said to belong exclusively to grammar; all others either were exactly like English in sound and spelling or belonged to a useful general vocabulary. We are convinced after eight years of experimentation (1) that it is possible to eliminate English entirely as a medium of instruction from the foreign language classroom; (2) that it saves considerable time to use the foreign language exclusively; (3) that it creates a wholesome atmosphere in the classroom; (4) that it stimulates both teacher and students to make the necessary efforts to express themselves in the foreign language; (5) that experience has shown that it is almost impossible to limit oneself to a minimum of English; all administrators agree that the tendency is to increase the amount, five minutes today, ten tomorrow, ending with only ten minutes of the foreign language in a comparatively short time.

*Translation.* What about translation? While a limited amount of English into the foreign language has some value as a means of insuring more precision in the use of grammatical rules, translation into English is a hopelessly dull process that we can well afford to abandon. No one will deny the education, the cultural value of rendering a page of French, for instance, into elegant English, with all the shadings of thought and beauty of form of the French; but such an exercise is exceedingly difficult and cannot be carried on successfully except in the solitude of one's room. Few people achieve success in this type of translation, which should be tried out only occasionally. The translation usually practiced in the foreign language classroom is a perfunctory rendering into very indifferent, if not wrong, English purely as a convenient device for reciting an assignment in reading. A skillful teacher, anxious to save valuable time and to excite the interest of the class in the work, will find judicious questioning in the foreign language résumés, and dramatizations, a far more efficient, far less wasteful device. The constant practice in translation creates an inhibition to spontaneous reading by accustoming the reader to the use of the intermediary of English in a process that should proceed directly from the printed page to understanding. All our data show that the shortest road even to a mere reading knowledge of a foreign language is through a proper use of the oral approach.

*Organization of Classes.* The progressive school administrator will not fail to make use of the intelligence tests in order to determine in advance which students can profitably enter more difficult academic subjects, such as the foreign languages. Our experiments in Cleveland have shown that an intelligence quotient of 100 approximately is necessary to enable a student to wrestle with the scientific aspect of the language study. It means that 30 to 40 per cent of the student population should promptly be discouraged from entering these classes. Some administrators may object that other subjects have to keep the intellectually slow students. With the exception of mathematics, however, the other subjects of the curriculum have not the strict sequence that is found in a language study. No student can succeed in a second or third semester of French who has not a reasonable mastery of the ground preceding, while a student in history may plod along, if not well, at least tolerably well, from semester to semester with a minimum of assimilation of that subject. A French class organized on a selective basis can be conducted by a skillful teacher with a percentage of failure of only 4 to 6 per cent; in classes promiscuously organized, if the standard is maintained as it should be, the mortality may be as high as 40 per cent. The moral effect on the student who contracts the unfortunate habit of failing is equal only to the profound discouragement that takes hold of the French teacher who is wrestling every day with the impossible, the thankless task of dealing with minds wholly unsuited to the complexity of the work.

# TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE CLEVELAND PLAN

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[From *FR*, XVIII, 4, Feb. 1945, 197–201.]

During the past thirty years, the teaching of modern foreign languages in this country has followed a zigzag course. One method after another, one objective after another has been pursued and abandoned. Recently, however, thanks to the impact of the Army's specialized training programs, we have seen in many of our large universities a new shift, this time to the oral approach, which seems to be in the right direction at last. We have finally made the discovery that a student's ability to read a foreign language not only does not suffer, but actually improves if he learns to read while at the same time learning to speak, write, and understand. Like many discoveries, of course, this one too is far from new; it was made years ago by the pioneers in the field of the oral method whose excellent work we tend sometimes to overlook in our enthusiasm for the "new courses."

Outstanding among these pioneers is Dr. Emile B. de Sauzé, the author of the Cleveland Plan for teaching foreign languages, whose many friends, students, and colleagues last year celebrated his twenty-fifth year of successful work in the field. During these twenty-five years, Dr. de Sauzé has built up in Cleveland a system of foreign language instruction whose equal it would be hard to find in the United States. The method of teaching followed in this system is the Cleveland Plan, or the multiple approach technique, referred to above. Probably the most unique feature of this plan is that it solves at once the problem of aims by pursuing them all simultaneously. From the beginning all objectives are integrated, so that at all stages the student has the ability to read, speak, write, and understand. The value of this four-way approach is that each word and each rule are imprinted more deeply and more firmly in the mind of the learner.

Although the Cleveland Plan is an oral approach, it is not a conversational or "natural" method, and it eliminates entirely from consideration the usual direct method technique of teaching a foreign language through memorization alone. Dr. de Sauzé is convinced that to know by memory even a considerable number of ready-made phrases in a foreign language is not to know that language. "An intelligent adult," he maintains, "is rarely successful in mastering a foreign language without learning in a functional way certain fundamental principles that govern the structure of that language and that enable him to generalize, to multiply his experience a thousand times." Accordingly, Dr. de Sauzé has built his Cleveland Plan on the firm foundation of grammar.

Dr. de Sauzé's elementary text, *Cours pratique de français pour commençants*, reflects his view of language learning as a process of transferring experience. Unlike that of the many texts constructed according to the word-count, the lesson material in this text is a close counterpart of the student's real life experiences. The first units, for example, introduce the objects of the class-room, situations from family life, the home and its surroundings, the holidays, and others with which the student is familiar. In all these early units the vocabulary consists almost entirely of concrete words; only later do the more abstract words appear.

Keeping the early lesson material concrete and within the range of the student's experience has the further advantage of stimulating his interest. This problem of student interest is one to which Dr. de Sauzé has given much consideration. He has finally come to the conclusion that any method which seeks to stimulate and maintain student interest must be based on accepted principles of learning. His own plan adheres throughout to these principles. First of all the principle of challenge is observed. This principle is most effectively applied in teaching grammar and vocabulary. In grammar, for example, rules are not presented to the student "on a platter," as Dr. de Sauzé phrases it; instead, a few carefully chosen illustrations of a given grammatical difficulty are set up from which the student, with the guidance of his instructor, can deduce the law governing the point in question. A valuable by-product of this inductive method is the training it affords in the process of inductive reasoning. In vocabulary a similar procedure is followed: either the new words are guessed from the context or they are explained in terms of words which are already familiar. The repetition of old vocabulary in this "paraphrasing" technique has the double advantage of fixing the old vocabulary in the student's memory and of breaking down the old compartment system of lessons so commonly found in elementary texts which Dr. de Sauzé very aptly refers to as railroad stations seen for a brief moment from the train window and then left behind.

In accordance with another principle of learning, that of single emphasis, the student is confronted with only one difficulty at a time. In German, for example, one gender is introduced at first and only in the nominative case. Ample time is allowed, too, for proper assimilation of the point in question. "A student not only should have an understanding of a rule," Dr. de Sauzé holds, "he should have 'assimilated' it through a sufficient series of drills, through repeated use until he has acquired a ready command of that rule. Difficulties still unconquered should not meet new difficulties on the way."

One of the most valuable features of the Cleveland Plan is the stimulation it offers the student. In this respect an oral-aural approach can hardly be equalled. In high school classes taught according to the Cleveland Plan students pride themselves on speaking no English in the classroom. This is, moreover, quite natural, for of all the language skills, the ability to speak gives the student the greatest sense of achievement. When he can converse with a native or understand a film or radio broadcast in a foreign language, he experiences a sense of power which the ability to read alone can never give him.

Dr. de Sauzé has given every consideration to this important question of student motivation. There is scarcely a greater thrill than to be invited by him to appear on a broadcast over W H K to the "classe invisible." These appearances on a radio program furnish Cleveland French classes with a powerful motivation for accurate pronunciation and clear diction. Another thrill is to be chosen to appear in the high school French, German, Latin, or Spanish play. These plays inspire a friendly rivalry among the various high schools, for each school group naturally wishes to win for its school the coveted prize at the "concours dramatique." I once had the pleasure of being a judge at one of these "concours" where parts of "Le Malade imaginaire" were performed by three excellent "troupes." All these young actors possessed surprising oral facility, yet most of them had studied French no more than six semesters.

The oral performance of most Cleveland students on all levels is quite good. Yet their reading ability has in no wise suffered as a result of emphasizing the spoken language. On the Knight Test, given in 1929, on the French Test of the American Council of Education given in combination with parts of the Cheydleur French Test (1930–1933), and on the Cooperative test of Columbia University given over a period of several years, Cleveland language students scored well above the national norms in reading and comprehension. The explanation lies doubtless in the fact that Dr. de Sauzé tries to develop in his students a real reading skill. He is convinced that reading from the standpoint of the reader is the instantaneous flashing to the brain of the meaning of the printed page and that anything else is not reading but deciphering. For developing such a skill, Dr. de Sauzé recommends careful study of a limited amount of material rather than a haphazard ploughing through large numbers of pages as is done in many elementary reading courses. The test results cited above prove the efficacy of such a procedure.

More convincing than statistical data, however, is an actual visit to some of the classes conducted according to the de Sauzé method. The best all-around impression of the Cleveland Plan in practice can be obtained by a visit to the Demonstration School which meets each summer under Dr. de Sauzé's direction on the Mather Campus of Western Reserve University. Here one finds classes on all levels in French, German, and Spanish, and on the elementary and intermediate levels in Latin and Italian. In French, German, and Spanish, these classes range from kindergarten groups to advanced university classes. In the elementary classes, one is amazed to see youngsters six years old playing French games, singing French songs, speaking French among themselves, in short, living in a completely French atmosphere for three hours each day during the summer session. Equally impressive are the advanced high school classes where the give and take between instructor and students always assures one of a good show. The Cleveland Plan's multiple approach, appealing as it does to ear, voice, hand, and eye, allows much variety of technique in presenting material and hence makes possible highly interesting and varied class-room hours. The principal device, naturally, is questions and answers. Later this procedure expands itself quite naturally into little dramatizations in which the students enact in playlet form the material of the lesson. These little playlets are often surprisingly original and clever even on the elementary level.

Turning from the organization and achievements of the Cleveland Plan, let us look now at one of its finest features: the excellent articulation it provides with undergraduate and graduate classes at the University. This articulation has been best worked out with Cleveland College, Western Reserve's downtown college, where high school students trained in French, for example, are given the opportunity to attend classes where only the French language is used. These classes, some of which are offered by Dr. de Sauzé himself in the Graduate School, include both literature courses and courses in practical French. Among those currently offered are classes in vocabulary building, syntax, advanced stylistics, and applied phonetics. Many of these classes are scheduled in the late afternoon so that teachers from the city schools may attend.

In Cleveland College and in the University during the summer session, the Cleveland Plan has been applied in slightly modified form on the university level. So far the results have been quite good; the students are enthusiastic about the method, and the rôle of the teacher is infinitely more interesting than in the traditional-type classes.

Many of the principles upon which the Cleveland Plan is based are being used with great success in the first year oral classes introduced this year at the University of Wisconsin. Nowadays after each class hour one meets little groups of students trying out on one another some of the phrases they have learned the previous hour. In these classes, too, the oral-aural approach is the first used. During the first two weeks students in French, for example, learn model conversations based on daily life situations. Beginning with the second week reading is introduced along with a little writing in the form of dictations taken from the material already learned orally. The early reading is done orally, first by the group, then by individuals, with close attention being paid to intonation and pronunciation. Later, outside reading assignments are made which are discussed in class. Translation is used, but most often it is felt that the material of the reading lesson can be covered adequately by judicious questions. The principle of inductive grammar is used in the form of the "analyses grammaticales" which pull together from the stock of phrases learned those phrases which illustrate a given grammatical point. The follow-up is a drill hour in which the new point is driven home by intensive drill exercises.

Since this is the first year that these oral courses have been in operation, it is naturally impossible to speak conclusively of results. It can be said, however, that these courses are progressing excellently in all the departments that have introduced them. Like all sudden shifts, of course, this shift to the oral method confronts us with new problems as to suitable text material, methodology, and objectives to be pursued, but these problems are being coped with quite successfully at the present time, and the outlook for the courses is on the whole quite good. The best that we can hope for these new university programs is that they soon achieve the excellent organization and integration of aims we have observed in the Cleveland Plan. At present they give every indication of so doing.

A large measure of the credit for the success of the Cleveland Plan during the past two decades is due to the excellent foreign language teachers in the Cleveland School system, for without their skill, ingenuity, and almost missionary zeal, the outstanding results recorded above could not have been achieved. The harmonious functioning of the plan as a whole, however, depends primarily on the expert guidance of Dr. de Sauzé himself, whose dynamic energy and enthusiasm are an inspiration to teachers and students alike.

# GENERAL LANGUAGE

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[From *MLJ,* XXIV, 8, May 1940, 563–567.]

In 1918 an experiment to substitute general language for English in the seventh grade was initiated in some Detroit schools. In those days general language was stressed as an exploratory course to determine pupils' aptitude for foreign language study. But it is much more than an exploratory course. It is the study of linguistics brought to the level of the junior high school pupil to enable him to grasp the importance of language.

To children, as well as to adults, language is a commonplace like eating and sleeping and they do not sense the tremendous part that language plays in their daily lives until this fact is brought forcibly to their attention.

Language, as the common vehicle on which most learning is based, is without a doubt one of the strongest factors conditioning our everyday lives. It must be readily recognized that growth in language power means improvement all along the line in every department of learning. General language helps the child to realize that his success in life is often conditioned by the development of his ability to use language. The appreciation of this fact will serve to motivate his acquisition of linguistic skills.

General language is, first, a survey course in the basic principles of language structure and development considered historically and comparatively. Second, it is a course in English and its foreign elements. Third, it is a gateway to foreign language study. Fourth, it is a liaison between English and the social studies. The purpose is to make pupils language conscious and to build up broad interests by increasing their knowledge and understanding as well as by developing attitudes and appreciations.

The general language course not only develops a language consciousness, but, since language is a social function, it helps to set up social attitudes. Among other things it aims to produce an understanding of the foreign peoples within our gates and seeks to make children proud of their foreign heritage while developing true patriotism.

The general language course is a worth-while experience for all pupils regardless of age or ability. The material is flexible and adjustable to pupil differences so that it has been taught in the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth grades in different situations. It is now used as a strand of the English program. An endeavor is made to apply and develop in the general language class the skills which pupils acquire in other classes.

It should be stated at the outset that this course is not organized for the purpose of teaching specific subject matter. The pupils should be measured by their growth in ability to use language more effectively, to think and to express thought more clearly, to read and to interpret more accurately what they read. The interest and effort shown by the pupils are as important as their achievement in measuring outcomes. What is easy for one child is hard for another. Therefore, a variety of activities is suggested to give ample scope for individual progress in a practically unlimited field.

The content of a general language course is as broad as the needs and uses of language permit. The role which language plays in life is so great that there is no limit to its sphere of influence. Anything that promotes a more effective use of language and helps to develop citizens able to grasp and to convey thoughts clearly must find a ready place in our schools.

The material is so organized that it calls for much class discussion and research. Too much stress cannot be put on language as social behavior. A discussion of the influence of environment on language will lead to worth-while discoveries. The teacher guides the class discussion by subtle questions and hints, but the pupils themselves conduct the group discussions so that they may develop that necessary spirit of give and take.

It will be easy to pass from the discussion of the influence of environment on language to the matter of an individual's speaking voice as an element of personality. Just what voice is and how sounds are produced is an excellent topic to talk over. It will lead to such questions as to how children learn to speak. It will soon become evident what a complex activity speech is. Pupils will be surprised to find that what we usually call "organs of speech" are not in the physiological sense "organs of speech," but organs for breathing and eating, which man has adapted to sound production. That should bring up the question of the differences in sounds made by animals and those made by man. "Briefly stated, in human speech different sounds have different meanings. To study the co-ordination of certain sounds with certain meanings is to study language." The question as to whether animals can speak is very interesting to many children who insist that their pet dogs can "speak."

Another topic which always brings out much discussion is the statement that "we think in words." Here we need a definition of ***word***. As pupils talk about words as symbols for ideas we must emphasize the fact that it is the ***meaning*** which words carry that is the important element in language. We neither think straight nor understand clearly when we use words inaccurately. Words and their meanings are the tools with which we communicate our thoughts. An enriched vocabulary means a more accurate expression of our own thoughts and a better interpretation of the thoughts of others.

Pupils learn that a group of people who use the same speech is a speech community. The speech community is the most important kind of social group. The value of language depends upon people's using it in the same way, so that every member of the group understands what the others say and can make the proper response. By close observation of language users, it is found, however, that no two persons speak exactly alike. This, in part, accounts for variations in the same language. The most striking differences in speech in this country are geographic, but social class also affects speakers of a language. Within the standard language there are differences depending upon many factors, social and economical. This topic can lead to discussions on ***dialects*** in different parts of the country—New England, Pennsylvania Dutch, Southern dialect, etc. Another theme for discussion is a comparison of the English spoken in England and that spoken in the United States. For example, there is the story of the English woman who entered a department store and said she wished a ***reel of cotton***. When asked what she wanted to use it for, she explained that she had a rent in her gown and wanted to mend it. She was directed to the yard goods counter, but what she wanted was a spool of thread.

The average pupil of junior high school age is eager to learn how people first began to communicate, how words get meanings, where the English language came from and how to use it to the best advantage, how to become good speakers and writers. If the pupils are made to see that form is a necessary element in the comprehension and interpretation of ideas, then the mechanics of language cease to be a disciplinary instrument and become a valuable means to an end. The pupils readily see that every language has its pattern, that words are used in orderly manner according to meaning and following definite rules. They realize that just as they cannot play baseball with football rules, so they cannot play the language game of give and take in everyday life without rules.

General language deals with language in the broad sense and with English in particular, showing how it developed and grew to be perhaps the richest language in the world. Just as the people of this country have come from many lands so the English language owes a tremendous debt to other languages from which it gets over half of its vocabulary, for, while the English language is basically Germanic, it contains over 50 per cent Latin and French, not to mention words from other sources. Then to show how all these foreign elements combine to make the English language, pupils are introduced to a little Latin and learn a great deal about English grammar and word formation. The study of Latin roots and affixes supplements dictionary work and adds many new words to the pupil's vocabulary. An opportunity is found for the study of a little French, Spanish, and German. The pupils learn to pronounce fairly well simple reading material in the foreign languages constructed mostly of cognates. In addition they find out something of the geography of the countries whose languages they are studying. They know their boundaries, their capitals, their important mountains and rivers. They learn some facts about their scientists, their writers, their artists. Legends, myths, folklore, songs, plays—all find their way into the general language classroom.

Of course, the general language class does not go very deeply into the study of any one language. The purpose is merely to lay a foundation of interest, and to lead the way to a serious study of a specific language later. When a class has such varied language background that pupils can translate a sentence into fifteen different languages, it is not difficult to show that it is the thought back of the words that matters, not the words, which are merely arbitrary symbols (valuable when you know them and useless if you don't). This shows the social nature of language.

Some of the other projects which help to make pupils language conscious are, for instance: a project to work out the first few lessons for Robinson Crusoe to use in teaching Friday English. That class found out a great deal about language, and the pupils very quickly realized why gestures proved a very limited means of communication. Another project was a boy's report on his baby sister's efforts to talk as he kept tab on her vocabulary growth.

Now follows a study of the art of writing and its development to the alphabet stage. This brings the pupils into contact with various nations around the Mediterranean and their contributions to civilization. They become acquainted with the Egyptians, the Phoenicians, the Babylonians, the Greeks, and the Romans.

Now they are ready to go more deeply into the question of the origin of the English language, and to get facts they turn to history. Early English history is another unit of work. By the aid of maps and reference books they discover interesting facts about the Celts, the early Britons, Caesar and the Romans, about the Vikings, the Anglo-Saxons, and the Normans, and always they find changes in the language and the fusion of different languages so that they see how English became the composite language that it is.

This attempt to epitomize the general language course does not give a clear picture of the wealth of material touched, but in summing up I may say that some of the outcomes of this study manifest themselves in:

1. The development of language consciousness evidenced by greater pride in correct usage of one's own language;
2. A better understanding of the importance of language as a means of communication and the tool of thought;
3. A keener interest in sources of English words and an enriched vocabulary;
4. An effort to master the skills which make the individual a more efficient member of society;
5. A greater appreciation of the cultural contributions of other nations and a feeling of respect for the backgrounds of our foreign population;
6. Attitudes and habits of behavior which tend to make individuals more worthy citizens of the world.

After reading this account of what a general language course is, no one, I am sure, will have the mistaken idea that it is a smattering of several foreign languages. To paraphrase a well-known expression, general language does not make a pupil a "Jack of all languages and master of none." It may not make him a *master* of English, but it helps to improve his use of it. It is not a substitute for foreign language study, but a motivation and a supplement to it. It has a definite surrender value as evidenced by some of the outcomes mentioned above.

It has helped to increase foreign language enrollment in our schools, but, more important than that, it has been enthusiastically welcomed by administrators, teachers, pupils, and their parents. The interest it arouses permeates whole neighborhoods. It helps to forge a strong link between school and home.

# GENERAL LANGUAGE AS A PROGNOSIS OF SUCCESS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

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[From *GQ*, XII, 2, March 1939, 71–80.]

When, only a few years ago, the educational public was introduced to the term "general language," the members of the Old Guard (who, according to some translators of *Les Misérables*, "die, but never surrender") threw up their hands in outraged pedantry. "If it were not enough to be already insulted by *general science* and *general mathematics*, must we now endure another hideous hodgepodge?" they cried.

Perhaps the indignation of these linguistic royalists is to a certain extent pardonable, for the term "general language," like the policeman's lot, is not a happy one. It suggests a disordered mélange, a potpourri, an olla-podrida. And in fact, all such "general" courses can degenerate into just that, unless there is a wise and well-ordered selection of course content, with a clear-cut philosophy behind it and a definite aim in view.

Efforts have already been made to exorcise the curse of an evil name be rechristening the baby. In the Philadelphia junior high schools it is "Introduction to Foreign Language Study." Kaulfers' suggestion of "Orientation in Language Arts" and Tharp and Taylor's offering: "The Language Arts Survey Course" vie with each other in felicity. I like either of those, and I think "baby" will, too. I say "baby" advisedly, for the general language idea is largely the product of the last decade. The first textbook in the field—Leonard and Cox: *General Language*—appeared in 1925.

To begin with, just what do we mean by "general language"? I shall endeavor to find the answer to that question in the following pages. Even as late as 1932, ideas as to what elements should enter into a general language course were still in a relatively confused state, as is clearly shown by Miss Eddy in the Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education of that year, wherein she enumerates eight different types of courses in vogue at the time.

Those of you who have read the analysis of the general language situation by Tharp and Taylor in the *Modern Language Journal* for

November, 1937, will realize that the fog originally enshrouding the general language idea is gradually but surely being dispelled, but that any genuine uniformity of judgment as to the nature and aims of the course still lies in the future. In particular, even if there were by now some general agreement as to course content, no scientific attempt has yet been made to determine just who should administer the course, at what grade level it should be offered, and for how long. It is given more often as a prelude to a foreign language, but sometimes as a substitute for language study. It is administered more frequently by the foreign language department, but sometimes by the English department. It is given variously for one semester, for one year, and for two years. It appears in different localities in the seventh, in the eighth, in the ninth, and in the tenth grade, but most frequently in the eighth, because the opinion is crystallizing that the course is best adapted to the adolescent level and finds its greatest usefulness as a gateway to language study.

To discuss intelligently the prognostic value of general language, it seems necessary to outline the chief types of courses that have been formulated, and to detail the values that have been claimed for each.

In 1926, the year following the publication of the first textbook by Leonard and Cox, appeared "An Exploratory Course in General Language," by Bugbee, Clark, and so many others that the list of authors read like a football lineup or the Board of Directors of the Chase National Bank. This book, which apparently set the fashion for a few years, was an exemplar of the "exploratory" or "tryout" course in general language. Unfortunately, the term "exploratory" has since been used by some in a quite different sense, but it seems more appropriate as a description of the "sampling" course, in which the student is presented with a few preliminary lessons in several languages, including Latin, together with some salient facts as to the history, culture, and *mores* of the various countries concerned.

The primary aim of such a course is evidently to offer the student a set of actual experiences in foreign language study, with the ultimate view: first, of determining the student's probable fitness for embarking on the study of a particular language; secondly, of affording him some tangible basis for choosing one language rather than another. Does he prefer the austerities of Latin, the grace of one of Latin's fair offsprings, or the solidity of German? In other words, does he prefer huckleberry pie to peach or pumpkin? Or, perhaps, he doesn't care for pie at all, and would rather have ice cream—that is, social science.

The exploratory course, then, is quite frankly an effort at obtaining a prognosis of linguistic ability. Now, we all know that psychologists and educators have seriously questioned the existence of any such faculty as "language aptitude." At the same time we have quite properly been searching for years for some means of obtaining a reliable prediction of probable success or failure in language study, in order to avoid the lamentable waste involved in having our language classes cluttered up with the unfit and the uninterested. But the question immediately arises as to whether the tryout course in general language furnishes the most reliable prognosis to that end, or can even be justified on any other grounds.

In the first place, the exploratory course is clearly a time waster. At best it is an antipasto, into which any number of conglomerate ingredients may enter. The student marks time for one, or two, semesters, and in the end finds himself possessed at the most of a mere smattering of more or less unrelated, incoherent, and fragmentary details. In "Pedoguese" (the language of the educators) the course has no "surrender" or "terminal" value.

As early as 1928 we find Kaulfers, who has long been conducting extensive experiments in linguistic prognosis, ready to relegate the tryout course to oblivion.[1] As the result of his continued investigations Kaulfers has finally reached the conclusion that we should abandon fruitless efforts at prognosis in favor of actual experience in language study, with a course in national cultures for those who prove inept in assimilating a foreign tongue.[2]

Again in 1928,[3] E. C. Cline also raises his voice against the mere tryout course by proclaiming that general language should not primarily be a study *in* language, but quite frankly a study *about* language. Two years later[4] he specifically defines the dangers of the tryout course as follows:

1. The sampling may be misleading through being not properly representative.
2. The sample consists of easy rudiments and gives no hint of later difficulties.
3. A short experience in a new field may be deceptively interesting only because of its novelty.
4. Such a course possesses no inherent educational value.

In Tharp's analysis of 1937 the present consensus is neatly summed up in the statement: "There is a definite lessening of stress on prognosis in favor of orientation and terminal purposes, regardless of superior or inferior capacities."

We are therefore justified in concluding that the undiluted exploratory course has been weighed in the balance and found to be shortweight. Whatever its prognostic values, it has generally been pronounced to be an excrescence on the body educational. Even a linguistic aptitude test would serve just as well and would save ninety-nine per cent of the time.

Before we drop the curtain on this tryout phase of general language, it would not be fair to omit a reference to Miss Eaton's novel method of language exploration and prognosis through the medium of a course in Esperanto, with linguistic trimmings and cultural background. Miss Eaton establishes the value of such a course by objective testing. Whatever be the virtues of Esperanto as an approach to a living tongue, an artificial language is to me a stark and unlovely thing. One inevitably prefers a living bloom, with all its thorns and bugs, to a synthetic flower; a human being ("With all thy faults I love thee still") to a wax doll. This judgment is to be construed wholly as a personal opinion, even as a prejudice, and makes no pretense of scientific validity.

While the pure tryout course was having its brief day in court, experiments in a different direction, such as those conducted by Miss Lindquist in Detroit and by Cline in Richmond, Indiana, were evolving a wholly new conception of what should constitute a general language course. Language as a unity—not *a* language but *language*—had never been presented to the adolescent. What if the rudiments of philology he had succeeded in picking up consisted of adventitious crumbs fallen from the table of English, or Latin, or a modern language. On the other hand, there is at least one authentic case on record of a girl who "studied" French for three years without ever discovering that there was any relation between French and Latin. What an eloquent testimonial for her teachers!

Languages had been too much presented as separate entities. Why not remedy this incoherence? Why not bind the links of the chain together? Why not a basic course in linguistics, composed of the essential facts and processes of language, and designed to give the pupil a bird's-eye view of this rich and fertile field, and a synthesis of the principles common to the study of all languages, including the mother tongue?

This would comprise primarily a general survey of the origin and development of human speech, with particular reference to the history of English and its kinship with the other well-known Indo-European tongues, together with a treatment of the principles of word formation, derivation, and semantics: quite simply, a course in elementary philology. Its concrete aims would be to demonstrate the importance of language in human affairs and to awaken in the pupil a consciousness of the many phases and rich possibilities of the study, appreciation, and use of all language; in other words, to develop to the full whatever measure of congenital *Sprachgefühl* he might possess. (*Sprachgefühl* may be interpreted as one phase of general intelligence.)

* * * * *

Our philological interpretation of general language has even received the priceless boon of the accolade of the educators. For example, Koos and Kefauver, in "Guidance in the Secondary Schools," pronounce: "Such a course is pedagogically and psychologically sound as a prerequisite for specialized courses, and—what is more important—is peculiarly adapted to the mental capacities of the early adolescent."

What benefits might a course of this type reasonably be expected to confer on our adolescent pupils? In addition to the primary aim of making them language-conscious and of demonstrating the vast importance of language in human affairs, it should improve their command of English by enriching their vocabulary and by prompting them to weigh the connotation of words. It should help in developing the cosmopolitan attitude and the spirit of mutual understanding among nations. In these days, anything that leads, if ever so little, toward that devoutly-to-be-wished consummation is eminently worth while.

Another virtue of this interpretation of general language is that it appeals not only to the pre-language pupil, but also to the "language misfit." Whether the pupil follows it with a foreign language or not, he has acquired an educational unit of intrinsic worth. Such a course does definitely offer a "terminal" or "surrender" value. Tharp, in the survey previously alluded to, cites ninety per cent of the teachers responding to his questionnaire as expressing their conviction that the course is equally designed for the foreign language neophyte and for the pupil who does not expect to study a language.

We must not lose sight of the fact that a modicum of language exploration is by no means excluded from the picture. However, the exploration is no longer conducted as an experience with isolated "samples," but as a demonstration of the intimate interrelationship of the well-known Indo-European tongues—in other words, it is an excursion into the outskirts of comparative philology, against a background of national cultures.

There remains to be considered one more aspect of this "language survey" course. We have all heard a great deal in recent years of the "integrated curriculum," in which it is designed to break down the traditional water-tight compartments and extreme "departmentalization" of the subject matter in our schools and to present man's knowledge as a unified whole. That the language survey course is a long step in that direction is undeniable. I quote from Kaulfers: "Integration in the Language Arts" (p. 53):

> When language is taught from the beginning as a means of communication, with due regard for the essential worth-whileness of the content expressed, the possibilities for integration, not only with English, but also with the social studies, the arts, and the sciences, become infinite.

Consider these possibilities in the case of the language survey course. In addition to a direct liaison with English and foreign languages, we encroach upon the domains of mythology, archaeology, anthropology, ethnology, geography, history, and national cultures (daily life, *mores,* art, music). In the development of the English vocabulary we encounter an array of terms from the biological, physical, and social sciences; so that Kaulfers' adjective "infinite" seems scarcely an hyperbole.

Even by 1932 the growth of language survey courses had attained such proportions that it was given substantial recognition in Miss Eddy's monograph on "Instruction in Foreign Languages" (United States Bulletin No. 17) and in Cole's "Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching."[5] Several textbooks in the field have appeared, among which we may note: Cline: "Your Language," Lindquist: "An Exploratory Course in General Language," recently revised, and my own "General Principles of Language."

The widespread approval with which teachers have greeted the movement is attested by Tharp's survey of 1937, which reported about ninety per cent of the teachers as giving their enthusiastic endorsement to the virtues of general language. Miss Lindquist, in the *Modern Language Journal* for May, 1937, gives further testimony of the increasing popularity of the new-type course. Some authorities—Pei and Kaulfers, for example—vigorously contend that the very salvation of foreign language study rests on the spread of the general language movement.

Now, what of the prognostic value of our language survey course? Here we come face to face with a division of opinion among teachers and educators. In Tharp's analysis we find: "Most teachers agree that a general language course should be diagnostic in purpose and a prognostic test of the student's language ability. . . . A few educators doubt the value of a general language course for prognostic purposes. They maintain that one year in a foreign language or even a student's ability in English furnishes the most reliable index of his probable success in a foreign language."

It is my belief that teachers who exaggerate the prognostic value of general language do so from a misconception of the fundamental function of the present-day survey or orientation course. This misconception is a "hang-over" from the out-moded sampling course, of which prognosis was the primary aim. There is an unfortunately large proportion of secondary-school teachers who are more or less comatose and conservative creatures. Adjustment to innovation is to them a painful process. They never quite catch up with the band wagon. Can it be that teachers who overstress the prognostic purpose of general language belong to this group?

Contrast this generally expressed predilection for prognosis with Tharp's own conclusion, previously quoted: "There is a definite lessening of stress on prognosis in favor of orientation and terminal purposes."

In the same vein, Kaulfers says further: "The new-type orientation course is only incidentally prognostic." [6]

In Philadelphia, virtually all junior high school principals are convinced that our general language course ("Introduction to Foreign Language Study") is primarily cultural and is designed almost solely to lay the foundation for the subsequent experience with a language. It is, so to speak, simply the first term of the language. One principal furnished me with a complete list of pupils' marks in 8B English and general language, compared with their ninth grade language marks. The correlation in English and foreign language was closer than between general language and foreign language.

As the final phase of the general language situation we must consider Kaulfers' outline for a course in "Orientation in Language Arts." [7] This, while conforming substantially to the survey course that is the commonly accepted embodiment of the general language idea today, seeks its motivation in the cultural contributions of foreign civilizations to our own and endeavors to find at all times integration with the life of the community, without stress on foreign language prognosis.

My only criticism of Kaulfers' outline is that it does not include enough of semantics. His course in practice could certainly not be covered satisfactorily in less than two years, but that is all to the good, if administrators could be persuaded.

As for the rest, the full implications of Kaulfers' and Roberts' brochure: "A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts," [8] published in 1937 for use in the Stanford Language Arts Investigation, far transcend the scope of a discussion of general language. If we adopt the authors' plan, instruction in foreign language as we still know it today is to be restricted to *"the talented few"* or postponed to the collegiate stage. This amounts to a complete reorientation of our methods and objectives and to a thoroughgoing reorganization of the secondary curriculum. The realization of such a plan would require a general nation-wide agreement among modern language teachers, educators, and local administrators. Teaching *about* foreign languages and cultures may be the *summum bonum* for the American adolescent of today, but it is something utterly different from teaching *a* language. Is it our path to salvation, or are we merely taking refuge in an *Ersatz?* Only time will tell.

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I believe that a scientific study will definitely discredit the purely exploratory process and will establish the value of the language survey course as an integration of the language arts with other domains of human knowledge and with the life of the community. As the various aims and outcomes of the course fall into their proper perspective, its validity in providing a prognosis of success in foreign language study will emerge as a non-essential, as a by-product, and as only one of several factors contributing to that end. The real worth of the course will be revealed in its synthesis of the language arts, in its presentation of language as the prime means of human communication, as the most vital and all-pervasive of the instruments of civilization.

## NOTES

1. See *School Review*, April, 1928.
2. See *School and Society*, November 24, 1928; *School Review*, October, 1931; THE GERMAN QUARTERLY, this issue, pp. 81 ff.
3. *School Review*, September, 1928.
4. *School Review*, March, 1930.
5. Recently revised by Tharp.
6. *A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts*, p. 44.
7. *A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts*, p. 60 ff.
8. See especially pp. 6, 56 ff.

# MODERN LANGUAGE AND THE PUPIL OF LOWER LINGUISTIC ABILITY

EUGENE JACKSON, *Chairman*
*Committee on Modern Languages in a Changing Educational World*

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## *I. Philosophy and Aims*

In February, 1935, at the suggestion of Superintendent Frederic Ernst and Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Foreign Languages, a committee of first assistants in modern foreign languages was appointed to work with the Director and Assistant Director, Theodore Huebener, in a study of the problem of the high school pupil who does not succeed as he should in foreign language study. This committee was named the "Committee on Modern Languages in a Changing Educational World."

The problem which the Committee on "Modern Languages in a Changing Educational World" is attempting to meet in the proposed course in modern languages is this: *What shall we do with the students of lower linguistic ability who are incapable of doing profitable and successful work in the traditional language courses which lead to Regents Examination and college entrance?* This problem is really part of the much larger one, namely: *What shall we do with those students in our high schools who are unable to cope successfully with the traditional high school curriculum?*

It is no answer to say that such students should not be in the high schools, or that they should have been better trained in the elementary or vocational schools, or that they should be in trade schools. The fact is that we have them with us in the high schools and that their number is likely to increase rather than decrease.

The subjects in the curriculum which are compulsory, such as English, history and art, must meet and are meeting the problem by adapting their courses to the needs and abilities of all types of students. Pioneers in this field were the high school teachers of freehand drawing who realized a few years ago that not all students could be turned into artists. In fact, they discovered that many students could not even draw accurately the strawberry boxes, bottles and jugs of various kinds with which the drawing rooms were cluttered. The drawing teachers, however, did not throw up their hands in despair and decide that those who could not draw a strawberry box accurately should be barred from the study of art and be given shop work or social forms or what not in its place. What they did do was to develop a course in art which is designed "to give all, and especially to those who have no marked technical ability, a chance to study creatively the art that is related to their immediate surroundings." In other words, they developed a course of art appreciation, so that now the strawberry box-bottle era in art study is a thing of the past in our high schools.

A similar change has taken place in the teaching of music. In this field also it has been realized that technical skill and accurate knowledge of technique are for the few who are musically gifted, while music appreciation is for all.

The teachers of elective subjects, including modern languages, can meet the problem of the student of lesser ability either by adapting their courses to meet his needs or by washing their hands of him altogether and confessing that they have nothing of value to contribute to his education. The teachers of modern languages can say: "We wish to take only those students who are linguistically gifted, students who are capable of attaining the traditional aims of modern language study by the traditional methods." They can take the position that only the intellectual elite are capable of obtaining benefits through the study of foreign languages commensurate with the time and money expended.

For modern language teachers to adopt the latter attitude would be to renounce their position as educators, who, according to John Dewey, are persons engaged in the process of re-adapting education to new conditions and purposes. They would sink to the level of mere purveyors of subject matter, selling their birthright for a mess of paradigms.

Modern languages, if properly taught, are as fine an educative instrument as any subject in the curriculum and can be adapted to the needs of all students.

No other subject presents so many facets of interest: the glamour of the foreign country whose language is being studied, its songs, music, dances, art and customs; its history, legends, folklore and scenic beauties; the thrill of expressing and understanding even the most elementary things in the foreign language; the relation of the foreign language to the vernacular; the large number of words derived from the foreign language appearing in English; the influence of the foreign civilization on our own through colonization and immigration; the programs of foreign song and music and the speeches of the most prominent men in foreign countries, which the radio brings into our very homes; the large islands of foreign populations in our cities.

No other subject affords so many opportunities for correlation, since English, history, art, music, geography, are or should be integral parts of modern language study.

It was these things that the committee had in mind when it formulated the general aims of the proposed plan, namely:

1. To integrate the study of the language, customs, art, music, literature, history, and geography of the foreign nation, stressing the interrelations between the foreign civilization and our own.
2. To stress the points of contact between the foreign language and the vernacular, so that the student's knowledge of English may be broadened and deepened as he progresses in his study of the foreign language.

These aims the Committee believes are most worth while, and attainable in a modest way even by students to whom the accurate use of case endings and foreign word orders prove insurmountable obstacles.

However, it must be borne in mind that the nature of the material chosen must be within the range of the students' interests and comprehension.

The course does not indicate prescribed amounts in any phase of the work. The amounts covered will depend upon the make-up of the class and the results of experience. Not too much should be attempted, but what is attempted should be thoroughly done, so that proper habits of working and thinking may be developed in the students.

The most important factor is that formal grammar is practically eliminated. By this elimination the following advantages are obtained:

1. The greatest stumbling block to successful language work is removed, for grammar and language are not synonymous, although some of our teachers, and also some of our chairmen, think them so.

2. The teacher will have time to stress those phases of language work which are most interesting and in which the student is capable of achieving reasonable success. There will be time for the students to learn many songs, to practice many easy dialogues based upon their own interests, to read easy texts, to do a great deal of question and answer work in the foreign language, stress being laid on fluency rather than accuracy, on the ability to understand and make oneself understood, rather than on gender and endings.

This insistence upon fluency rather than accuracy will no doubt be considered sacrilegious by grammatically-minded teachers, and this despite the fact that precious little accuracy is found in the work of normal classes notwithstanding the interminable drill on forms. A glance into homework notebooks with their multitudinous errors almost leads one to the conclusion that training in formal grammar develops inaccuracy rather than accuracy. If further proof is necessary, the usual results in the English into the foreign language question on the Two and Three Year Regents Examinations will furnish it.

Real training in accuracy can and should be obtained through memory work, dictation, and work on cultural projects, in making scrapbooks, in gathering realia, and in oral and written summaries in English of passages read.

This means no dilution of the regular syllabus. That has been the fault of those courses of study heretofore attempted with students of lower linguistic ability, courses which took the regular grammatical pabulum and spread its teaching over a longer perior so that the unfortunate students might be subjected to a double dose of deadening drill on materials they could never master. The proposed plan offers solid and worthwhile subject matter which will serve as an instrument for developing desirable habits, attitudes and abilities. It will at the same time enable the students to achieve that pleasurable feeling of success which is so important to the adolescent.

In working out the plan, the Committee has gone into much detail in suggesting procedures, for it felt that the method of teaching was of far greater importance than the subject matter. The proper steps in teaching grammatical topics are known to every tyro and there remain few, if any, new types of grammatical drill to be discovered. Nothing is easier than to send students to the blackboard with English sentences for translation and then to correct the multitudinous errors which the students willingly provide.

This plan, however, will require something more than mere vendors of verbs and peddlers of paradigms. It will demand progressive, earnest, resourceful language teachers, who know that the subject of modern language is a splendid instrument for educating students of all kinds, not only students of a selected group. The Committee is confident that there will be no difficulty in finding such teachers in the schools of New York City.

Eugene Jackson, Chairman,
Committee on "Modern Languages in
a Changing Educational World."

### *General Aims*

1. To integrate the study of the language, customs, art, music, literature, history and geography of the foreign nation, stressing the interrelations between the foreign civilization and our own.

2. To stress the points of contact between the foreign language and the vernacular, so that the student's knowledge of English may be broadened and deepened as he progresses in his study of the foreign language.

The aforementioned aims represent a shift of stress from the linguistic features of language study to the cultural and appreciative features. They are to be attained largely through the medium of reading, both in the foreign language and in the vernacular. Oral and aural work will play their part. Formal grammar, however, will be practically eliminated.

Teaching of the foreign language with the aforementioned aims will tend to develop in the students especially the following attitudes, abilities, emotions, habits and skills:

*Social Attitudes.* Interest in foreign civilizations and intelligent comparison with our own. Tolerance and broadmindedness. International understanding and good will.

*Intellectual Abilities.* Ability to read very simple texts in the foreign language. Ability to comprehend the spoken language in its simplest forms. Ability to use common expressions in the foreign language. Ability to use correct English both orally and in writing.

***Emotions.*** Thrill of success and joy of achievement. Appreciation of beauty, through active participation in singing, dancing, painting, poetry, and dramatics.

***Habits of Work.*** (Motivated by an Attainable Goal) Perseverance, through memory work. Accuracy and neatness, in written work. Organization of materials, in gathering and classifying Realia. Ability to work alone, as in outside reading, homework.

***Manual Skills.*** Constructive and artistic abilities, developed through map drawing, scrapbooks, pictorial illustration of texts, making of puppets and models of various kinds.

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## *II. Suggested Activities*

### *A. Reading*

I. Objective:
  1. To develop ability to read simple texts with comprehension and and enjoyment.
  2. To build vocabulary.
  3. To develop ability to recognize grammatical constructions to the extent necessary for the comprehension of reading material (i.e., the recognitional aspect of grammar).
  4. To develop the ability to reproduce and recast simple texts.
  5. To arouse interest in the culture of the foreign country.

II. Nature of texts:

The reading texts must be of the simplest kind, consisting of fables, anecdotes, and short narrative tales, in which there is a limited vocabulary, frequently repeated, and simple sentence structure.

III. Amount of reading to be determined by experimentation.

IV. Suggested procedures. To develop the reading ability of the pupil and at the same time improve his general reading knowledge of the language, the following procedures will prove valuable.

  1. Presentation.
    a. To facilitate understanding, the teacher gives a short introduction in English: "This story is about——"
    b. The teacher reads with expression while the pupils, with books open, follow the text closely. New words and expressions are

selected, written on the blackboard and explained by the teacher, before or during the reading. Pupils should be encouraged to ask the meanings of words and expressions which they do not understand. Pupils should copy in notebooks these words and expressions with English meanings.

c. Pupils now reread the story silently.
d. Pupils are questioned in English by the teacher, to test comprehension of content. Simple questioning in the foreign language may also be employed.
e. Pupils summarize the story in English. In doing this they should step before the class and speak clearly and correctly. Good English and good expression should be stressed. The class suggests additions and corrections to this summary.
f. The procedure outlined under *d* and *e* may be reversed in case the teacher finds it desirable.
g. Concert and individual reading of the text follows.

2. Homework. Types of assignments which may be used in connection with reading.

   a. Pupils write twice, with English meanings, the new words and expressions and learn them.
   b. To illustrate the text, pupils may draw pictures or bring in suitable illustrative material.
   c. Pupils write in English a summary of the story or parts of it.
   d. Pupils answer in writing (in English or the foreign language) simple questions in the foreign language. If answers are to be in the foreign language, the questions should be such that the answers can be found entire in the text.
   e. Pupils complete incomplete sentences in the foreign language. Only a word or two should be required to complete each sentence.

3. Exercises to test comprehension.

   a. Completion.
   b. Matching.
   c. Multiple choice.
   d. Summarization.
   e. True and false statements.
   f. Questions and answers, questions formed in the foreign language. Answers may be in (1) correct, complete English sentences, or in (2) the foreign language, fluency being the objective rather than grammatical accuracy.

4. Exercises to develop speed and power in reading for enjoyment.
   a. Reading of plateau material (new combinations of old materials —vocabulary, idioms and construction).
   b. Reading of new materials within assigned time limits, this reading to be tested immediately by the procedures given under "Presentation."
5. Exercises to build vocabulary.
   a. Cognates with English.
   b. Synonyms and antonyms.
   c. Etymological relationships (nouns-verbs, nouns-adjectives).
   d. Running association (hand-glove). Matching of words in parallel columns.
   e. Repetitive processes, such as question and answer.
   f. Completion and substitution.
   g. Matching words.
   h. Elimination of unrelated words from series of related words.
   i. Groupings of words according to category (e.g., objects in a room).
6. Exercises to develop recognitional knowledge of grammatical constructions.
   a. Compare expressions in the vernacular with equivalents in the foreign language, noting similarities and differences in construction.
   b. Teach these foreign language constructions as vocabulary rather than from standpoint of analytical grammar.
   c. Reinforce the understanding of these constructions through the use of a few exercises in completion and multiple choice.
   d. Stress in these ways only those constructions which are essential to comprehension.

### *B. Dialogue*

I. Objective: To enable the pupil to experience the pleasure of understanding and speaking the foreign language in its simpler forms.

II. Nature of dialogue:
   1. Should always be short; sometimes a dozen lines will suffice.
   2. Should contain useful everyday expressions.
   3. Should deal with the daily life of the pupil.
   4. May consist of brief anecdotes in dialogue form.
   5. May be dramatizations of portions of the reading text.

III. Construction of dialogue:

1. The teacher writes the dialogue in the foreign language.
2. The teacher works out a dialogue in class in conjunction with the pupils, pupils furnishing the ideas in English, the teacher expressing them in the foreign language.
3. The teacher occasionally encourages the pupils to make in the foreign language their contributions to the dialogue, stressing fluency rather than grammar.
4. Teacher and students cooperate in working out in class dialogues based on portions of the reading text.

IV. Suggested procedures:

1. The teacher writes the dialogue carefully on the blackboard.
2. Pupils copy same neatly into their notebooks. This copying should be carefully supervised, as pupils do not copy accurately unless trained to do so.
3. Dialogues should be read aloud. Emphasis should be on reasonably correct pronunciation and dramatic expression. Interest and emulation may be aroused and sustained by varying the assignment of the roles; teacher and class, teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil, half of class and other half, row and row.
4. Some of the dialogues should be thoroughly learned so that they may be recited and written accurately from memory. Such memorizing, however, should be assigned only after the dialogue has been practiced a great deal as oral reading. After such preliminary practice, many pupils will have accomplished the memorization.

### *C. Songs*

I. Objectives:

1. To give pleasure of achievement.
2. To improve pronunciation.
3. To increase vocabulary.
4. To give an introduction to the cultural background of the foreign country.
5. To awaken an appreciation of the characteristic music of the foreign country.
6. To provide the pupils with a cultural treasure of lasting value.

II. Nature of Songs:

1. Simplicity of music—ease and melody and of limited range.
2. Simplicity of text.

3. Types of songs.
    a. Folk songs.
    b. Popular songs of past and present.
    c. Operatic selections.
    d. National airs.

III. Suggested procedures:
1. Brief explanation by teacher of the background of the song.
2. Reading of words by teacher and pupils to stress pronunciation and rhythm.
3. Complete comprehension of the song (or stanza).
4. Singing of the song by the class, led by the teacher. The use of the phonograph is recommended where good records are available.
5. Song should be sung at frequent intervals and thus memorized.

### *D. Memory Work*

I. Objectives:
1. To provide an activity in which all pupils can participate successfully with a resultant feeling of satisfaction.
2. To train the pupil in systematic memorizing, developing thereby habits of attention, accuracy and perseverance.
3. To enable the pupil to retain a limited amount of material in the foreign language (a) which he will be able to recall with fluency, accuracy and pleasure and (b) which will serve as a basis for everyday oral expression.
4. To train pupils in the pronunciation of the foreign language.
5. To provide material for exercising the pupils' rhythmic sense.

II. Nature of material for memory work:
1. Useful expressions and words: days, months, seasons, numerals, dates, time, weather, classroom expressions, formulae of courtesy.
2. Dialogues, songs, jingles, proverbs, simple poems and easy prose passages.

III. Suggested procedures:
1. For dialogues and songs, see B, IV and C, III.
2. For poems, follow in general the same procedure as in the case of the words of a song. Analysis or dissection of a poem for linguistic difficulties should be avoided. Appreciation of the poem as a whole should be stressed. The interest in the poem and in the learning of it may be enhanced by illustrative material provided by teachers or pupils, such as drawings, pictures, dramatizations or phonograph records.

### *E. Cultural Material*

I. Objectives:

1. To develop an understanding of such features of the foreign civilization as are within the range of the pupils' interest and comprehension, appealing to the innate interest of youth in the novel and the strange.
2. To help the pupil to understand those elements of his environment which have their roots in foreign lands.
3. To train pupils to collect and organize material illustrative of the foreign civilization.
4. To train pupils in the use of English in making oral and written reports.
5. To afford points of contact for correlation with other subjects of the curriculum.

II. Nature of Material:

1. It should be within the range of the pupils' interest and comprehension.
2. It should be vivid, arresting and simple.
3. It should be easily attainable from accessible sources.
4. Emphasis should be laid on objective illustration and realia.

III. Types of material and activities:

1. Photographs, posters, postcard views, newspapers, magazines, travel folders, guide-books, timetables, programs, menus, hotel bills, tickets (railway, street car, bus, subway), catalogues, models, dolls in costumes, stamps, coins, children's books.
2. Visits to ships, museums, libraries, churches, stores and shops, cinemas, cultural centers, restaurants, foreign quarters, concerts and the opera.
3. Preparation by pupils of scrapbooks, models and collections.
4. Use of the radio, phonograph, stereopticon, films (silent and spoken, especially of travel), and other aural and visual aids.

IV. Amount to be covered:

Neither the amount nor the sequence of the material is definitely prescribed, but is to be determined by the interests and experience of the teacher and the composition of the class.

Projects may vary in duration according to their importance and scope.

Cultural facts should not be taught in isolation, but should be developed in connection with central projects.

V. Suggested procedures:

1. Motivation (creation of interest) through use of one or more of the following:
   a. Items in the reading text which require elucidations and expansion.
   b. Topics or suitable objective material introduced by the teacher or pupils.
   c. Current events.
2. Carrying out the project.

The basic principle of all procedures is pupil activity. Each pupil should contribute whatever he can, his contribution being in line with his own interests and capacities. The teacher will direct and cooperate. Thus,

a. If the project is one of foods, different groups of pupils may
   1. Gather menus from foreign restaurants and steamships.
   2. Study the sources of the food.
   3. Draw pictures and label them with the foreign names.
   4. List foreign language terms that have been introduced into American cookery.
   5. If students in home economics classes, prepare some of the foreign dishes.
   6. Bring to class, if possible, samples of the food product.
b. If the project is folk costume and modern dress, different groups may
   1. Collect illustrative postcards and foreign catalogues.
   2. Make sketches of costumes.
   3. Make dresses for dolls or for themselves.
   4. Make costumes for use in assembly and club programs.
   5. Bring in fashion magazines and books on costumes.
   6. Make lists of foreign language terms applied to clothing.
   7. Visit museums and stores.
c. If the project is one of general geography, different groups may
   1. Draw maps in colors (showing cities or rivers or mountains).
   2. Make relief maps in clay or soap.
   3. Make pictorial maps.
   4. Make jig-saw puzzle maps.
   5. Study relationship between physical conditions and occupations.
   6. Study relationship between climate and products.
   7. Indicate on blank outline maps agricultural and mineral regions, industrial centers and the like.
   8. Travel maps (showing tours to and in the country).

d. There are topics which are best developed by the teacher, who will necessarily impart information directly, especially in teaching such topics as customs, and ways of travel. Thus, he may
    1. Draw upon his personal experience or studies.
    2. Invite teachers from other departments or persons from outside the school to contribute.
    3. Show views by means of postcards, slides, stereopticon and films.
    4. Arrange exhibits of realia gathered, when possible, with the help of pupils.

### *F. Language Facts and Usage*

I. Objectives:

To enable the pupils to recognize such language facts as are essential to comprehension.

II. Nature of material:

The nature of the language facts to be treated and their sequence will depend upon the textual materials used. These facts will differ also for each language. They will include a recognitional knowledge of gender, tense and word order.

III. Suggested procedures: (See A, IV, 6)

1. Most language facts should be taught as vocabulary.
2. When the vocabulary method does not lead to adequate understanding, language facts must be explained; for instance, when the word order differs from that in English.
3. Practices to avoid:
    a. Don't drill paradigms.
    b. Don't translate English into the foreign language as a formal exercise.
    c. Don't give formal analysis of unimportant language facts.
    d. Don't stress rules and exceptions.
    e. Don't use technical grammar terms.
    f. Don't make grammatical explanations a formidable matter.
    g. Don't interrupt a pupil to make a correction, but let him finish his expression of thought.

# THE FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE STANFORD LANGUAGE ARTS INVESTIGATION

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[From *H*, XXI, 1, Feb. 1938, 13–18.]

The Stanford Language Arts Investigation,[1] inaugurated in June, 1937, under a three-year grant from the General Education Board, has as its aim the creative development, in co-operation with teachers, of curricula in foreign languages and English which will make an effective contribution to American education. It is an investigation to the extent that it provides for the study of fundamental needs in the field of the language arts, for the consideration of ways and means by which these needs may be met, for the practical tryout of new materials and learning procedures, and for the evaluation of content and activities in terms of their effectiveness in achieving the goals which they were intended to serve.

The needs with which the Investigation is concerned are those revealed by scientific studies, by the experience of leaders in the field of the language arts, and by the teachers of the participating schools. In the consideration of ways and means the Investigation draws upon the best thinking that can be brought to bear upon its problems from professional literature, from experimental research, from the experience of successful teachers, and from the suggestions of an advisory board of technical consultants in different parts of the United States. For the construction of curriculum materials it relies not only upon the services of a staff of research assistants, but also upon the voluntary exchange of materials developed in the participating centers.

During the brief period of its existence the Investigation has issued, in addition to its monograph *A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts*, a total of fifty bulletins comprising annotated bibliographies for both students and teachers, as well as specific suggestions and materials for teaching units. These have been distributed to the participating schools for use when and where they serve local needs. The evaluation (and subsequent revision) of these materials in terms of their efficiency in attaining the ends which they are intended to serve is one of the chief functions of the Investigation. For purposes of evaluation, the opinions of students, teachers, and administrators, the actual products of pupil and teacher activity, and the records of pupils on tests and in subsequent courses, are given due recognition.

The aim of the Investigation, however, is creative. It purposes ultimately to make available to all schools a body of materials and procedures that have undergone the test of use, and that have proved their efficiency in contributing to the realization of goals which are accepted as valid and worth while. Its central objective is the establishment in representative schools of programs of instruction in language arts which will by their example and results encourage the development and propagation of increasingly effective curricula in language arts: the foreign languages and English.

The published reports of the Investigation will therefore not consist merely of statistical tabulation (though these will have their place), for its technique is not just one of counting. Neither will its bulletins have equal significance for all teachers or schools, for it prescribes no universal formula, no preconceived system of curriculum organization, no panacean method of teaching. It is taken for granted that no program of instruction can take vigorous root or flourish except as it is at least in some degree adapted to the soil and climate of the educational environment.

Of the several institutions voluntarily participating in the Investigation, no two are engaged in identically the same types of work, or using identically the same techniques. Thus it is hoped that the enterprise will eventuate in a variety of tested approaches to common goals, each appropriate to the differences in size of school, community environment, and maturity and ability of pupils, which must ultimately condition the nature and organization of any program of education.

The programs which are being developed in the various centers represent the products of the co-operative thinking and planning of the participating teachers during their conferences at Stanford University in the summer of 1937. A second series of conferences on the Stanford campus will be held during the summer of 1938 for reports of progress, for the exchange of experiences, for the evaluation of work already completed, and for the co-operative planning and construction of programs for the following term.

It must already be evident that the unifying factor in the Stanford Language Arts Investigation is not to be found in any specific formula for teaching foreign languages or English, nor in any particular type of curriculum organization. Its unity lies in its guiding philosophy of the potential function of the language arts in American education, and its orientation of curricula toward a common goal.

It would obviously be futile to attempt to present adequately within the limits of this discussion the philosophy of education upon which the Investigation is predicated. The premises of this philosophy, however, can be summarized in part as follows:

1. It is assumed that language is primarily a social phenomenon: It was never invented except as a vehicle for the communication of feelings, wants, and ideas. It was never developed except in a social situation involving always a speaker and an audience linked by content in the form of meaning. The Investigation therefore regards form as inseparable from content. In the light of the results of the traditional curriculum it questions the efficiency of any program of instruction which attempts to teach one aspect of language in isolation, or in a setting which bears little relationship either to the essential nature of language or to the conditions in which it can function effectively. Its guiding principle, derived from research into the psychology of learning, is that form and mechanics can be taught best in connection with the pupil's own speech when he is preparing to write or speak about something which he actually wishes to communicate in order to interest, influence, or inform some real person or audience—not always just the teacher.

For the learning program in foreign languages this thesis obviously presupposes careful investigation of those abilities in language which children can develop effectively in terms of their maturity and mental growth. It may ultimately imply a reallocation of both content and emphasis within the scope of the foreign-language curriculum to prevent the perpetuation of futile attempts to teach certain language concepts at levels where the learners have not yet attained the requisite maturity of mind.

In the light of recent research, experimentation is being encouraged along the following lines:

(*a*) The development of abilities in language from the start through content that is worth reading, writing, or talking about from the standpoint of the cultural or social significance to the pupil of the information or meaning which it conveys.

(*b*) The evaluation of outcomes in lower-division offerings in terms primarily of degree of ability to communicate or comprehend meaningful content in the foreign language.

(*c*) The organization of learning programs in terms of meaningful activities which will enable the child to develop ability in language through abundant practice (in emulation of examples of good usage) instead of through mere discussion in English about language.

(*d*) The provision of functional practice in special phases of language usage as needed in the immediate performance of these activities.

*Bulletin XLIV* of the Investigation deals specifically with the foregoing problems in terms of possible classroom procedures.

2. It is assumed that language, in the broad sense of communication, is man's most significant social invention and most indispensable instrument of thought. As such, it deserves study not merely as a static code or tool *per se*, but as a dynamic social force conditioning the everyday lives of human beings. The Investigation, therefore, recognizes the appropriateness of affording opportunities to all interested young people for the development of insights into the subtle role of language in law, education, religion, propaganda, politics, and international affairs, as well as for the development of an appreciation of language as an aspect of personality and as a socio-cultural index.

In the Menlo School, Menlo Park, California, a two-hour orientation program in language arts, sponsored jointly by a teacher of foreign languages and a teacher of English, is at present in successful operation in the ninth grade. The place of foreign languages and cultures in this program is indicated by the following units:

(*a*) The cultural influence of Spain and the Americas on the United States as revealed by words, place-names, etc., borrowed from or via the Spanish.

(*b*) The cultural influence of the United States on Spain and the Americas (and on other foreign peoples) as revealed by words borrowed from American English.

(*c*) Our linguistic heritage from historic cultures—the Phoenician, Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Arabic, and Indian—as revealed in modern English spelling, vocabulary, and chirography, and in writing materials.

(*d*) Language as a field for scientific study; e.g., in the interpretation of historical documents, in lexicography, in archeology, etc.

(*e*) Language as a field for vocational specialization.

(*f*) Language as a field of avocational interest.

(*g*) Foreign-language study as the process of learning how foreign peoples think.

(*h*) The role of language in international affairs.

(*i*) The significance of the International Phonetic Alphabet, Basic English, the metric system, Esperanto, etc., in the quest for an international language.

Although some of these units may seem "childish," it must be remembered that the learners in this case are children.

3. It is assumed that literature is the mirror of life and the treasury of human experience, thoughts, hopes, and ambitions. The Stanford Language Arts Investigation therefore recognizes reading as more than a form of literacy, and as more than a mere linguistic exercise. It con-

ceives of reading as a key to life, and as an essential life activity in itself. Consequently, it urges the importance of providing adequate materials and opportunities in foreign languages for reading which will not serve merely as an escape from reality, nor as a mere illustration for rules of grammar, but which will afford an understanding of life, and a means of intellectual participation both in the solution of its problems and in the realization of its fullest potentialities. The Investigation's criterion for literature is thus not exclusively one of form, but also one of content; and its approach to literature is not merely aesthetic, but also social. The world's greatest books were written, not as an exercise in language, nor as an illustration of form, but for a creative social purpose. No great literature can be understood or appreciated except in the light of its conception: If its purpose is too remote from the lives of young people, or too profound to be understood by boys and girls, it it doubtful if forced attention to the aesthetics of form alone, or to the translation of words as a mental discipline, can make it of value or significance to them. Moreover, the Investigation's conception of literature transcends *belles lettres* or fiction; it embraces all the worth-while recorded experience of mankind that has meaning for human life. Libraries abound in such books.

This view of literature, and of its function in the education of youth, obviously provides a broad basis for the integration of the foreign languages with other fields of the curriculum, and for the differentiation and individualization of reading programs to accommodate a wide range in abilities and needs.

But what, then, is the common goal which is to give unity and direction to the entire scope of the language curriculum from the first year to the last? The unifying objective as defined in the monograph of the Investigation is a cultural one: It is the development of an enlightened Americanism, through the building of a creative American culture.[2]

The conscious purpose is to understand and appreciate American civilization as an integral part of present and past world civilizations, and to develop cultural integration in the present and future by effective communication of socially significant content through the medium of the foreign languages and English. The enabling objectives are:

(*a*) To evaluate the various contributions of foreign peoples to the building of American life and culture, and to create favorable conditions for such contributions in the future.

(b) To understand the part America has played in developing the cultures of other peoples, and of world culture, and to participate actively in the development of more important contributions in the future.

(*c*) To gain a sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the cultural meaning of the major civilizations of the world irrespective of their interrelationships with our own people in the past.

In its approach to these ideals the Investigation is imbued with the social philosophy of language as man's most precious medium for the creative expression of life—life not merely as it was in the past, nor simply as it is at present, but also as it might desirably be in days to come. In terms of this philosophy no approach can be considered acceptable if, through a grossly mistimed or disproportionate emphasis on form and mechanics to the neglect of meaning, it destroys the very nature of language or the conditions in which it can function effectively. In terms of this philosophy no approach can be tolerated if, through a futile insistence upon adult standards of perfection at levels of maturity where these cannot possibly be attained by boys and girls, it converts language into a disciplinary instrument for the frustration or destruction of any child.

### NOTES

1. Conducted under the co-direction of Walter V. Kaulfers, Grayson N. Kefauver, Holland D. Roberts, and Barbara D. Cochran, Secretary.

2. Walter V. Kaulfers and Holland D. Roberts, *A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts* (Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1937), p. 6.

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## HIGH SCHOOL FRENCH—COURSE OF STUDY FOR CONVERSATION

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[From *MLJ*, XXX, 7, Nov. 1946, 429–440.]

### Educational Situation

*General Educational Values Sought:*

The study of French or any other language should furnish the student with an experience that would be comparable to directed travel in a foreign land. This, in turn, should broaden his international sympathies. There should be an increased understanding of his own language and institutions. This would be an indirect but nevertheless an important educational result which would occur in an amount proportionate to similar or identical elements in the languages and cultures involved.

*Immediate Objectives:*

The immediate objective in this study of French is an increasing ability to use and understand the French language. Considerable experience in hearing and speaking French should precede oral and silent reading.

The specific immediate objectives sought for the pupil in this French course include:

1. Practice in speaking the language.
2. Ability to pronounce accurately.
3. Knowledge of vocabulary.
4. Practice in hearing and understanding the language.
5. Discipline in ear training comprehension.
6. Exercise in concentration.
7. Reading of the language.
8. Aid in English.

*Ultimate Objectives:*

The teacher should recognize and promote pupil activities which should be based on the student's interests. It is the teacher's task to cultivate those knowledges, skills, abilities and habits which will be of use to the pupil in his present or future life experience. The teacher of French or any other subject is not only a teacher of that *subject.* He is also a teacher of *boys* and *girls.* He is directing the student's progress by means of pupil activities. Pupil interest in the language, literature, and life of the French and especially those phases that are comparable to their own language and life motivates pupil activities.

The specific ultimate objectives sought for the pupil in this French course include:

1. Increased ability to speak French.
2. Increased ability to hear and understand oral discourse.
3. Increased ability to read French orally.
4. Increased ability to read French at sight.
5. Increased ability to appreciate French culture and civilization.
6. Increased ability to understand English.

*Method:*

The *Direct Method* will be used. The teacher will make use of certain phases of the objective and oral methods but the foreign language should not only be the *medium* but also the *end* of instruction. The student is urged to get the meaning of the spoken and written word directly. Words and phrases that do not lend themselves to objective presentation will be taught by means of explanations in the foreign language or through context.

There are several principles to be observed in beginning work.

1. Ears should be trained before the eyes.
2. Reception before reproduction.
3. Oral presentation before reading.
4. Immediate repetition before deferred repetition.
5. Chorus work before individual recitation.
6. Ear training exercised in pronunciation.
7. Translation cannot be avoided, but it must not be abused.

### CONVERSATIONAL FRENCH

I. *Vocabulary*
  A. Practical classroom vocabulary
  B. Vocabulary of daily life experiences
  C. Elementary word lists
  D. Elementary idiom lists
  E. Crossword puzzles
  F. French words and expressions commonly used in English
  G. Important abbreviations

II. *Oral French*
  A. French conversations (Kany and Dondo, *Elementary French Conversation*. New York: D. C. Heath and Company).
    1. Formules de Politesse
    2. La Salle de Classe
    3. L'Heure
    4. Le Temps
    5. Au Restaurant
    6. Le Football
    7. La Natation
    8. Chez le Coiffeur
    9. Le Salon de Beauté
    10. Le Magasin de Chaussures
      a. Read in French
      b. Recite in French
  B. Songs
    1. Appropriate to seasons of the year and different situations

III. *Aural Comprehension*
  A. Directions given by the teacher and explanations of new material
  B. Dictations
    1. Short conversations
  C. Linguaphone records

IV. *Silent Reading*
  A. Short paragraphs are read and questions and true and false statements concerning the passages are answered.

V. *Sight Translation*
  A. Short conversations taken from the text book
  B. French correspondence

VI. *Civilization and Culture*
  A. Chief cities
    1. Capital, large seaports, commercial centers
  B. Family life
    1. Domestic conditions, clothing, food, and amusements
  C. School Life
    1. A day in the French school
    2. Program of studies
    3. Student Organizations
    4. Sports
    5. Student aspirations
  D. Formation of the foreign country
    1. National holidays
  E. Cathedrals and churches
    1. Outstanding cathedrals and churches in Paris
  F. Museums and other public buildings
    1. Outstanding museums and other public buildings in Paris
  G. Art, Science, Literature, and Music
    1. Outstanding painters, sculptors, scientists, writers, and composers

VII. *Pupil's Materials*
  A. Textbook
    Kany and Dondo, *Elementary French Conversation.* New York: D. C. Heath and Company.
  B. Some references
    Amateau, Edward, *French Civilization.* New York: Globe Book Company.
    ——— *French Study Guide.* New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc.
    Chankin and D'Arlon, *High Points.* New York: College Entrance Book Company.
    ——— *Géographie de la France.* Paris: Librairie Hachette.
    ——— *La Géographie de la France.* Hastings-on-Hudson, New York: Gessler Publishing Company.
    Huebener and Neuschatz, *Let us review.* New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc.
    ——— *Les Provinces Illustrées de France.* Paris: La Rougery, Blondel, éditeur, 7, rue St. Lazare.

VIII. *Teacher's Materials*
  A. Some references
    1. Dialogues
      Bernard, Tristan, *L'Anglais tel qu'on le parle.* Paris: Librairie Théâtrale, 3 rue de Marivaux (2ᵉ).
      Colette, *Sept Dialogues de Bêtes.* Paris: Mercure de France.
      Giraudoux, Jean, *L'Impromptu—de Paris.* Paris: Grasset.
      Pattou, E. E., *Causeries en France.* New York: D. C. Heath and Company.
      ——— *Nouvelles Causeries en France.* New York: D. C. Heath and Company.

19. Une partie de l'Université de Paris.
LA SORBONNE

29. Un monument en fer de 300 mètres de haut situé à Paris.
LA TOUR EIFFEL

33. La fête nationale de France.
LE 14 JUILLET

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 32<br>CRÊPES SUZETTE | 46<br>LA MANCHE | 24<br>LA LOIRE | 34<br>LES TROUBADOURS |
| 19<br>LA SORBONNE | 33<br>LE 14 JUILLET | 1 <br>LES SABOTS | 26<br>TABLE D'HÔTE |
| 29 <br>LA TOUR EIFFEL | 17<br>LE RÉVEILLON | 3<br>AUGUSTE RODIN | 22 <br>CYRANO DE BERGERAC |
| 16<br>AVIGNON | 38 <br>UN GOURMET | 12<br>JACQUES CARTIER | 27<br>LOUIS PASTEUR |

2. Civilization and culture
   - Aubry, J. C., *An Introduction to French Music.* New York: Palmer and Hayward.
   - Happel, Acerboni and Brooks, *The French People.* New York: Oxford Press.
   - Hourticq, *L'Art Français.* Paris: Librairie Hachette.
   - Jell, G. C., *Music Masters in Miniature.* New York: Scribner.
   - Lanson et Desseignet, *La France et sa Civilisation.* New York: Holt and Company.
   - Mornet, D., *A Short History of French Literature.* New York: Crofts.

3. *Games.* Games are valuable assets to a French teacher's program. The student is given opportunities to:

1. increase his ability to read French well.
2. increase his ability to pronounce French accurately.
3. increase his vocabulary.
4. increase his ability to hear and understand oral discourse
5. increase his ability to think in French.
6. increase his ability to learn and appreciate French civilization and culture.

ALLEZ-OP,* for example, is comparable to Bingo. Each pupil has a chart similar to the one on page 372. One of the group draws the small slips one by one from an envelope. He reads the statements in French and the students who have the words on their charts that correspond to the slips read put "bingo cubes" (i.e. small pieces of wood) or pieces of dried corn in the spaces. The answers may be given by the players. However, when the students play for small prizes, the answers are not given. Before the game starts the class decides what ALLEZ-OP will be. The possibilities are:

1. to fill four spaces in a diagonal, vertical, or horizontal position.
2. to frame the card: i.e., to fill the four edges of the card.
3. to fill the four inside spaces of the card.
4. to fill the whole card.

When the student obtains the designated pattern, he calls "ALLEZ-OP." The numbers are then checked by the "reader" and the winner becomes the "reader."

### CONSTRUCTIVE SOURCE UNITS

I. *Recordings*
   - A. Students make recordings in French to check the progress of their French pronunciation.

II. *French Correspondence*
   - A. Pupils receive letters in French from French Canadian correspondents, and from boys and girls from France.

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* *Allez-Op* may be obtained from the Gessler Publishing Company, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York. There are other interesting games offered by this company such as *Bon Appétit* and *Répondez, s'il vous plaît.*

III. *Trips*
    A. A French Opera
    B. French movies or movies with a French setting or background.
IV. *Christmas Caroling*
    A. Each year the French students go caroling in French through the streets of Doylestown, Pennsylvania.
V. *Individual Projects*
    A. Each student is responsible for an original French project.
        1. Possibilities
            a. Dress dolls in French costumes
            b. Pictures of French costumes made from postage stamps to show French-American relationship
            c. Crossword puzzles in the form of:
                1. Provinces of France
                2. French insignia
                3. Greetings
                    Joyeux Noël
                    Bonne Année
            d. Make French menus
            e. Make maps that show the products of France.
VI. *Group Project*

(Dramatization of a scene in a French shop as part of a French Assembly Program—not reproduced here. *Editor's Note.*)

* * * * *

4. Piano, violin, or vocal selections by famous French composers might be presented at this time. The two girls who acted as pages announced our soloist.
5. A violin soloist then presented Meditation from Thaïs by Jules Massenet.
6. French songs were sung and a candle lighting ceremony was performed.

The curtain opened and a chorus of eighteen girls formed a French flag. Two girls of each row wore blue dresses; two of each row wore white dresses; and two wore red ones. They sang a group of World War songs in French which we translated (except *Par là-bas* which was translated by Louis Delamarre). A candle lighting ceremony to give thanks for the liberation of France and to express our desire for an everlasting peace took place. At the end of the first song the chorus did a drill which terminated in the formation of two human French flags of one stripe of each color. A table with a huge paper French flag was then visible. This was the setting for the candle lighting ceremony. The end girls of the first rows of each small human French flag acted as candle bearers. After the third song the candle bearers placed their blue candles in a rack in front of the huge paper French flag. After the fourth song two white candles were placed in the rack. With the completion of the sixth song the candle bearers placed the two red tapers in the rack. As the candle flag burned the group sang *La Marseillaise.*

(French parodies of patriotic American songs—not reproduced here. *Editor's Note.*)

* * * * *

### DRILL FOR THE FORMATION OF TWO HUMAN FRENCH FLAGS

Large Human French Flag

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| BLUE | | WHITE | | RED | |

1- 3- 5—Two steps forward
2- 4- 6—One step forward
7- 9-11—One step forward
8-10-12—Do not move
13-15-17—Do not move
14-16-18—One step backward

Even numbers moved to the left; odd numbers to the right

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | 15 | 17 | 14 | 16 | 18 |
| 7 | 9 | 11 | 8 | 10 | 12 |
| 1 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| BLUE | WHITE | RED | BLUE | WHITE | RED |

### ANOTHER POSSIBILITY FOR THE USE OF FRENCH SONGS IN AN ASSEMBLY PROGRAM

*French songs*

(Two girls dressed in navy skirts and white sweaters acted as pages)

*First page*

Les chansons que nous allons présenter sont variées. D'abord, on peut trouver les chants typiques de la France. Après cela, nous voulons exprimer le symbole vivant de l'amitié franco-américaine, qui est le sentiment de la France.

*Second page*

The first two songs are typically French. In the last part of our song-fest we are desirous of expressing the friendship that the French nation has for America.

The curtain opened and chorus of twenty-four girls appeared. The order was as follows:

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | These girls formed a French flag: #19–20 wore blue dresses: #21–22 wore white ones; and #23–24 red. |
| 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | These represent the American flag: #13–14 wore white skirts and navy blue blazers with white buttons; #15–18 wore white skirts and red sweaters. |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | This group wore navy blue skirts and white sweaters. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | These people wore navy blue skirts and red sweaters. |

I. First position of the group and songs sung
  a. Au Clair de la Lune
  b. Il Était Un' Bergère

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | French Flag |
| 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | American Flag |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | White-blue |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Red-blue |

II. The first row moved to the rear; thus the white-blue group was in front of the others. *Proscrit, regarde les roses* was sung. The tune is "Drink to Me Only with Thine Eyes" and the words are by Victor Hugo.

*Proscrit, regarde les roses*

Proscrit, regarde les roses;
Mai joyeux de l'aube en pleurs
Les reçoit toutes écloses;
Proscrit, regarde les fleurs.
"Je pense aux roses que je semai
Le mois de Mai sans la France,
Ce n'est pas le mois de Mai,
Ce n'est pas le mois de Mai."

Paroles de Victor Hugo
Poésie écrite en exil.

III. The white-blue group moved to the rear and the American flag section walked forward. The entire group pledged allegiance to the flag in French and they sang the French words to "America."

Je prête serment de fidélité au drapeau et à la République des États-Unis, à l'union de la nation qui garantit la liberté et la justice pour tous.

IV. At this time the French flag people came forward and everyone sang "La Marseillaise."

V. At a given signal the group formed a "V." The girls knelt and stooped in order to make the "V" three dimensional.

24 18 16 23
2 13 17 5
9 8 11 10
21 7 12 22
3 15 14 4
19 20
1 6

The group was so arranged that the "V" was equally distributed with the three colors. They sang "Rappelons-nous Pearl Harbor" while they were in this "V" position. The curtain closed.

* * * * *

# THE TEACHING OF READING IN SPANISH

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[From *H*, XXVIII, 1, Feb. 1945, 33-44.]

* * * * *

By "reading" I mean transferring the idea from a page printed in a foreign language into my mind. If I receive the impression as I see a landscape through the window, without being conscious of the intervening glass, I am reading. If it is filtered through English, I am translating. Anybody with a dictionary and patience can dig out some sort of translation, but the ability to read requires training. So what concerns us is how to train our students efficiently.

The first problem is the quantity. Shall we read a lot or concentrate on a small amount? Extensive versus intensive reading has been violently debated for a long time. The famous Coleman Report, you remember, favored extensive reading. Increase the amount assigned and you speed up the rate and ability to comprehend, was its Golden Text. Advocates of this method compare language learners to sheep browsing at will in wide pastures and growing in proportion to the fodder consumed. Their argument is that the more we read, the greater will grow our ability to read and our mastery of the language.

Language, however, is a skill, and if we can take an analogy from golf, covering ground isn't enough to develop champions. A man may tramp over hundreds of links, swinging wildly thousands of times at balls, but it takes additional hours swinging over and over in the same spot at an imaginary ball, or putting from all directions at the same hole, to perfect himself. Logic would suggest a similar compromise between the two language methods.

Extensive reading develops rapid reading, but it also encourages careless reading. My five-year-old daughter astonished us by the speed with which she could identify the words for colors, until "black" and "blue" tripped her up. Then we discovered that she had observed nothing but the first letters. A round *o* meant "orange" to her; *r* indicated "red"; *g* told her "green." Since "blue" and "black" begin with the same letters, her system broke down. Adults reading English rapidly use the same system, guessing at words from context and a few letters. That is why we sometimes mistake "quite" for "quiet," as Spanish students often confuse "cuidado" with "ciudad."

Intensive reading, on the other hand, brings complete understanding but encourages slowness. Besides, it is probably true that few books used in the early stages of language training deserve intensive reading. Bacon, you remember, put all books into three classifications: "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and a few to be chewed and digested." Most of our first-year books serve chiefly for developing a skill and are to be used as manual training. Teachers give beginners cheap tools and ordinary wood, reserving high-grade tools and choicer wood for skilled workers.

And so the argument about intensive versus extensive reading may well be settled by a compromise: the use of both methods. One day we may assign a great quantity of outside reading and then read intensively in class, and at the next session we can reverse the procedure. Or perhaps we had better read intensively at first to make sure the students cultivate habits of observation and accuracy, and then speed up as they get the idea.

For the sake of the students, the teacher should warn them ahead of time which method will be followed on a given day. Questions after extensive reading are necessarily less detailed than when students have spent hours on a couple of pages. And if, at intervals, we give the students a period of silent reading to see how much they can cover in a given time, they can actually see the improvement they are making and be encouraged at their increasing speed.

When I asked some of my students what I should tell high-school language teachers about teaching reading, they had one request: Be more patient with questions on the assignments. Ask questions fast. Don't drag them out, or students will have to learn all over when they hear natives talking. But repeat several times and then give the students time to think. This is a new skill, which requires practice. Be patient and helpful. But the students were unanimous in insisting on plenty of oral discussion of the material read, so they would not be tongue-tied when they reached college.

Another possibility, which we use at Miami, is to read intensively in class, with considerable attention to detail, and then assign novels and plays for rapid outside reading. Thus in the first semester of second-year Spanish we cover perhaps 750 pages in class and 350 outside. This is not an undue quantity if you remember that the University of Chicago covers a thousand pages in its first-year language classes.

What kind of reading matter shall we use?

Every good teacher knows the importance of tempering the wind to the shorn lambs, so I need not urge easy material at first. Besides encouraging the students, it helps to prevent translating or deciphering. The use of English can also be diminished by providing familiar stuff at first. In our schools, children are often introduced to English reading through Mother Goose rimes. They discover that a few curlycue lines and letters on paper spell out Old Mother Hubbard, for instance. Thus words and phrases come to them as units rather than as a series of letters.

Spanish can be introduced through material already familiar in English, with the students observing how foreign words restate ideas they already know, and so they will assimilate ideas. Psychologists tell us that in most foreign language instruction, when a student sees or hears, for instance *mesa*, he thinks first of its English equivalent, "table" and then goes on to visualize the object. Only by by-passing the English and going directly from *mesa* to the mental picture of the furniture, as a native Spaniard does, will he really feel at home in the foreign language. We face the same problem in English. The first half-dozen times we hear "avaricious," we think, "That means a greedy person," and then visualize that person. But through usage we finally by-pass the explanatory phrase, and "avaricious" conjures up directly the greedy person.

Reading, however, is more than the substitution of English words for foreign words. Otherwise a dictionary could replace the teacher. In language, the phrase, rather than the word, is the unit. That, incidentally is the commonest criticism leveled by foreigners at Basic English. They learn "give" and "up," but "give up" meaning "surrender" can hardly be deduced from the two words singly, and so they feel like "throwing up the sponge," that is, provided they can get past the literal meaning of "throwing up."

Familiar matter need not mean fairy tales, such as some first readers contain, which offer slight nourishment for students. But books of legends, stories about well-known people, even translations of English classics, could be used if they have that priceless ingredient: interest. Skilled translators have put into Spanish much from *Ivanhoe* to *Gone With The Wind*. Or we might introduce reading through articles about this country by visiting foreigners. Perhaps you know *Un año en el otro mundo,* in which Julio Camba expresses his reactions to the United States, or Antonio Herasa's impressions, *De la vida norteamericana.* Besides the familiar background, which makes vocabulary-guessing easier, that type of book has the further advantage of letting our insular students discover what foreigners think of us and our customs.

The so-called "plateau-type" readers, based on the five hundred commonest words or some other arbitrary figure, have come in for much criticism as being pre-digested and artificial, but in our infancy we started with pre-digested products, which did not handicap us when we began to eat mature food. Plateau-type readers give confidence as students note the recurrence of familiar words and phrases.

Since students always struggle with the style and vocabulary of each new author, novels probably provide the easiest reading, since the struggle comes only once, with the additional help given in guessing as students get familiar with plots and characters. But the wise teacher will not concentrate on any one novelist, if vocabulary-building is an objective. Short stories are more difficult than the same number of words in a novel because the vocabulary changes with each new story.

Hardest of all—except poetry, for which most students can't work up any enthusiasm—are plays. They demand more from a reader than fiction, in which the author describes action and characters. They make demands on a student's imagination. However, because of their oral slant, plays probably hold the greatest practical value for those who want to go from the classroom to the Pan American Highway.

Latin American magazines and newspapers bring a touch of modernity to the classroom and show the students that they are working with a living language. So we frequently use Sunday issues from Mexico. The comics provide familiar characters and present little difficulty. The sports pages are studded with English cognates. The movie advertisements deal with films familiar to our students. Many of the feature articles are such easy reading that we teachers are frequently accused of picking out harder passages for final examinations than Mexicans have to read on Sundays to learn how the world goes by.

Can a student start out from "scratch" and read?

Unless you are speaking of deciphering or of translating by feeling, instead of with feeling, I believe some preliminary preparation is essential. The student's labor is considerably lessened if he knows some vocabulary when he starts. I'm not prepared to set a minimum number. Certainly he should be familiar with the 189 Spanish words that are so common that they were eliminated from the count in the Buchanan *Graded Spanish Word Book.* He would be helped, too, by as many as possible from some standard list of words like those of Russell or Keniston. For specialized reading, some of the most frequent technical words ought to be studied.

A little preliminary training in grammar also helps. Unless students know enough about agreement to recognize which words go together, they will have trouble. They must understand Spanish word-order and how it differs from English, and they should be sufficiently acquainted with verb-forms to grasp person and tense immediately. Grammar helps extract the idea that the author put there. Physically there is a vast difference—at least to me—between "I hit you" and "You hit me," but to a grammar-unconscious reader, only luck will let him know which received the blow. If he does not recognize and react to the subjunctive, too, he will take for gospel truth something which the author, by his use of the subjunctive, has labeled as uncertain. But much of this grammar can be picked up as the beginner progresses.

Perhaps you think I have been wavering in this article between reading and speaking. If that seems so, it is because I believe you cannot ignore the oral part of the language, even if your only desire is to learn to read, for instance, about the discoveries in dentistry made by Latin American practitioners. (Incidentally, sixty-four different dental journals are printed in Latin America.) Pronunciation—some sort of pronunciation—goes on even in silent reading. And for this inner speech, a little attention to the sound of letters is necessary unless you intend to pronounce everything as though it were English.

However, too much dallying about getting ready, too much poking over preliminaries, dulls the desire of the students for reading and speaking. It is time we got started. What are we going to do in the reading class?

Since there are so many sorts of reading, the material selected depends on the aims of the course.

Hardest of all is to read aloud, since this involves so many skills and such mastery of pronunciation and enunciation that few except natives achieve perfection. It is an aim in itself because most students have to concentrate so hard that they are absolutely unaware of what they are reading. So we can hardly expect a summary from them afterward.

I once interviewed José Mojica after hearing him sing a group of English songs. He showed me the small cards at which he looked while singing. One went:

Med plesuirs an palases do ai mei rom
bi et ever so jumbl ders no plais laik jom.

To him, *Home Sweet Home* was merely a series of sounds, and to many a student reading a foreign language aloud, the page is nothing more.

Then some read to enlarge their vocabulary. Here the single word or detached idiom is all-important. Others, reading to observe grammatical usage, concentrate on forms and technique rather than ideas.

To many, reading means translation. But translation is an art in itself. Under certain circumstances, I believe in it. I often give my better students the choice between reading a novel outside of class or translating a one-act play or short-story, knowing that translation will broaden their knowledge of both Spanish and English—the latter, of course, if they really search for the precise turn of expression that reproduces in English the author's ideas in Spanish. But for ordinary students, translation produces a meaningless "To me is pleasing the book" sort of nonsense.

Some students read for information. Much recent material about Latin America exists only in pamphlets issued by tourists and propaganda agencies south of the Río Grande. Often I assign to a student an article in Spanish about something the class is studying, as when somebody reads and reports on Larra's first-night essays while reading Romantic plays. Here, too, is a way of getting material for the projects which form so large a part of high-school methodology. This is practical. Much of the information about tropical diseases was abstracted from articles in Spanish before our boys started for the Pacific.

And finally—for a choice few—comes reading for pleasure. It can be learned. I could name a number of my students over the past years who read Spanish for fun. I remember one boy who came in excitedly, full of his discovery of Valle Inclán's *Sonata de otoño,* and insisting it should be translated instantly for the pleasure of those who could not read it in Spanish. He felt cheated when I showed him the English version. Other students, with no idea of impressing me, have voluntarily elected to read something in Spanish even when they knew an English translation existed. Of course this is an accomplishment that comes only after long and conscious effort; but it can be learned. And there are certain basic steps.

When students ask me how to learn to read, my first advice is to get the habit of looking at Spanish by phrases and never by single words. Take, for instance, the phrase: "No se ganó Zamora en una hora." I have seen it rendered: "Rome was not built in a day." The author of that translation made three bad mistranslations. By no stretch of the imagination can *Zamora* be translated "Rome." *Hora* is certainly not "day," nor is *ganó* "built." Yet the English is a perfect translation of the Spanish, since it conveys to a cultured American the idea that a Spaniard gets from the original proverb. That, rather than a word-for-word translation, is the ideal.

In the "pep talk" I usually give at the beginning of second-year Spanish, I tell the students they must do their best to avoid English. The harder they work, the sooner they will begin to think in Spanish. According to the testimony of some of my students, the more they are assigned for a lesson—thus forcing them to hurry—the more skilled they become in by-passing English, until finally, one day, they come with a half-smile and confess that unconsciously they put a Spanish word or phrase into an English theme, or even that they dreamed in Spanish.

But this requires effort. And a method. One that I suggest is that they begin reading by running over the whole assignment, forcing their eyes over the pages as fast as possible, and trying to avoid vocalizing. Never mind if there are a lot of words they don't know. The chances are that by the time they have reached the end of the lesson, they will have some idea of what it is about.

For the second reading, I advise them to slow up and try to extract more of the meaning from the pages. If they find what looks like important or key words, or unfamiliar words often repeated, they should try to guess logically at their meaning instead of turning immediately to the vocabulary or footnotes.

First I urge them to analyze the unknown words. Do they look like some English cognates? Terry, in his *Short Cuts to Spanish,* lists 252

Spanish words differing from English merely in pronunciation, like *suave* and *actor*. Wasn't it Victor Hugo who declared that most English was merely French badly pronounced? Some 522 additional Spanish words have *-ción* instead of *-tion*, like *acción*; 400 have *-ible*, *-able* and *-al* endings. By changing *-dad* and *-tad* to *-ty* in such words as *actividad*, you get 383 more English words, and 168 more are Englished by changing the final *-a* or *-o* to *-e*, like *vaso* and *prosa*.

Others, like *bistec* and *straik*, remove their disguise when read aloud. If you know how radical-changing words act, words like *fuerza* will take on a familiar look when the original vowel is restored. Some cognates are revealed when their heads and tails are chopped off, for between prefixes and suffixes lurk familiar roots. *Desencadenarse* reduces to *cadena*, and from the twenty-six letters of *anticonstitucionalísimamente* an alert student can salvage the negative *anti-*, the noun *constitución*, the adjective and adverb endings, and a superlative, and thus he will understand a jaw-breaker which he has certainly never seen before. Next, having guessed or figured it out, the student should test the meaning by seeing if it makes sense in the sentence. Then, if he wants, he may use the dictionary to verify his findings.

Now comes the final and essential step: re-reading the whole assignment. A rapid re-reading of the lesson, and even re-reading a book previously studied, does wonders in giving a complete view as well as fixing in mind the meaning of the newly-learned words.

Sometimes before letting the class start reading a new assignment, we tell them briefly what is going to happen. Or we may supply leading questions which help them look for details. Sometimes we list and explain key words before they are encountered. Another device is to read the advance work aloud and by grouping words, by emphasizing, or by intonation we help the students to combine the two preliminary steps. But a final re-reading in preparation for the next lesson is indispensable, no matter what assistance the teacher gives. Naturally this way of studying takes a long time, and if we expect students to study this way, we must not plan to cover many pages in an assignment.

In spite of every help, however, students are bound to encounter trouble. Reading, even in our own language, presents difficulties. Perhaps that should be a hint. Maybe we foreign language teachers can make use of the experiments already conducted for the improvement of reading in English.

The greatest handicap to success in reading is, perhaps, lack of interest. Nobody enjoys drudgery. The alert teacher finds ways of motivating, or substituting fun for drudgery, in reading. In extensive reading the remedy is more obvious than in the other method. I remember how I suffered in high school through the reading of *A Tale of Two Cities* in assignments of five to ten pages a time, accompanied by stern warnings about reading ahead. The result was such a loathing for continued stories that I still save up *Saturday Evening Posts* so I can read the serials at a gulp. Years later I re-read *A Tale of Two Cities* and found in it excitement and interest that were unnoticed when I Fletcherized it in the classroom.

Interest can be increased by a wise choice of reading matter. I once expressed in print my uneasiness at assigning *The Three Bears* in Spanish to a class of football players. We don't use that book any longer, but the reading matter in some first-year readers is still very dull, while even in advanced classes we often force our students to read stuff that, if we picked it up in English, we would toss into the waste-basket by the end of the first chapter. For a while at Miami we read several South American novels dealing with conditions a century ago, but students soon insisted that they wanted to know more about present conditions. When we took the hint and assigned modern writers, interest picked up.

Many students are handicapped by bad reading habits. Classes show such a range in reading speed! Some students get their outside reading done in a fraction of the time required by their dawdling fellows. Educators are experimenting with means of increasing the reading speed. One way is to increase the length of assignments, for people can learn to hurry if pressure is exerted. It is up to us to prod them on.

What can one say about the handicap of lack of concentration? The only cure for those who surrender to interruptions during the study period is to isolate them in separate study halls or offices, where they won't find distractions.

Lack of vocabulary is another barrier to comprehension. That has already been discussed and ways of acquiring usable words suggested. Lack of grammar-consciousness has also been considered.

We have a few students who blunder blithely through the difficulties of foreign languages because to them ignorance is bliss. But many of our students are further handicapped by an inferiority complex, by a lack of assurance. My experiences in teaching English to Latin Americans and watching them stride out boldly, using English when they had the feeblest of vocabulary support, make me realize how hesitant most North Americans are to use Spanish. They know they can't do it perfectly the first time or fear that in their reading they are missing details. This uncertainty destroys much of the pleasure of reading. Perhaps they do have a spotty comprehension. Maybe their standard answer to my question; "¿Comprende Vd. el párrafo?" should be "Un poco." But until they force themselves to get over their fear of mistakes, they can never learn to read and understand.

Another bad handicap is our students' general lack of cultural background. I have given up trying to find any who can explain Biblical or mythological references that crop up. Forty freshmen, graduates of high-school history courses, could not identify Charles Martel, Charles V, and Charlemagne. Joshua was, to them, vaguely, someone in the Bible. A reference to Noah and wine brought no answering gleam. Obviously people can go happily through the world ignorant of all these characters. Many do. But foreign literature is so full of Biblical parallels and allusions to history and mythology that these prove blind spots for readers who fail to recognize the reference.

If the reading is being done for information, then an inability to read critically and organize what is read is another handicap. These skills can be taught. If they have been overlooked during the earlier stages of education, perhaps it is the duty of language teachers to offer exercises.

The first exercise ought to be the discovery of the theme or main topic of the paragraph. Then should come an assignment requiring the student to read for the high points. As a test, he is given several summaries, one of which is too broad, another too restricted, and a third that is satisfactory. See if he can discriminate.

Later another paragraph may be provided, accompanied by a series of sentences, each of which the student is to classify as an essential or an unimportant detail. Or, after the theme is pointed out, he may be asked to decide from among the material furnished in Spanish which details he considers important.

One part of our final examination, after two years of college Spanish, consists of a short magazine or newspaper article in Spanish to be outlined or summarized. The student who can do this satisfactorily will have no trouble in abstracting articles later.

And speaking of tests, obviously any for reading should follow the aims of the course. For checking a student's accuracy in reading, though we admit it does not encourage them to think in Spanish, we use questions in Spanish with answers in English, in order to be sure the students are not merely copying words whose meaning they do not know.

True-false statements also check the comprehension, though to get fifty statements about which there can be no argument takes hours of work and counter-checking.

Completion sentences (*El héroe se casó con . . .*), or matching items, with a column of descriptive phrases to be hooked to the people to whom they apply, are other possible schemes. Another is to give the names of the characters in the stories, the location, the events, followed by a series of adjectives from which the student must select those which are appropriate.

Some of these devices can be used also for the outside reading. In reality, the best check on how much extra reading the student has done comes in the final examination, because there is usually a high correlation between the examination grade and the amount of previous reading to build up vocabulary, speed, and comprehension. But if we want to make sure the student has read the assigned novels or plays, we may talk with him informally in Spanish or English about them, ask for a summary in English or Spanish, or use some such formal report as the following:

### SUGGESTIONS FOR A BOOK REVIEW

I. Title. Author with his approximate dates.
II. Type of book (i.e., novel, play, short-story, etc.). Year in which it was written. Whatever historical or social events of the period have significance in relation to the work.
III. Theme of the work. Its dominant idea. Is it "dated," i.e., treating of a problem no longer of interest?
IV. Setting of the story. Date of period covered by it.
V. Short synopsis, including names of principal characters and their interrelation. (About 100 words.)
VI. Author's purpose in writing it (if you can deduce it from the reading of the book).
VII. Any striking or memorable bit that appealed to you and should appeal to others. A high light of the story, which may be action, description of character or scene, author's philosophy, etc. Choose something which would induce others to want to read the whole work (if you liked it).
VIII. Criticism of the characters. Are they real? Is the author more interested in them, or in his plot?
IX. The story situation. Is it real? Is it fantastic or imaginative?
X. Your personal reaction. Is the book interesting? Why? Are the descriptions brief, or too long to be interesting? Does the setting seem natural and something you can visualize? Is local color well-used or over-used? What of the author's vocabulary? Is the style old-fashioned?
XI. If you have read other works by the same author, compare them. Compare it with works in English literature with which you are familiar.
XII. What is the place of this work in the development of the nation's literature? What were its forerunners, and sources? Is it part of some movement? Did it have any influence on later writers in the same or other nations?
XIII. Would others enjoy reading it? Why? What would you think of its chances of sale and popularity in this country in translation? If the book read is intended for classroom use, in what classes and with what types of student would it have its greatest success?

Perhaps one might argue that a literary training is a prerequisite for such a report. True, if we were to grade it like a freshman theme. But if we are contributing to the all-round training of our students, this outline will give a basis to judge books later, or will help in preparing papers for literary clubs or book reviews for lodge or church. And it also guides the student toward what we are stressing: handling Spanish as if it were another native language.

And in conclusion, a word about that ogre of the students: final examinations. Shall they rehash the books which the student has covered in class, or deal with new material? We are trying to prepare our students for their life after graduation, when they must be ready to understand whatever material in the foreign tongue they happen to find. For this reason, I believe new material provides the best test.

As I said, part of our Comprehension Examination, given at the end of two years of study, includes a newspaper article to be summarized. We also usually present a short complete story accompanied by a score or more questions, and also part of an essay or series of short paragraphs with true-false statements. To those who pass with distinction, we give our congratulations, knowing that they can use their Spanish practically and—if they continue studying—they may some day reach the point where they will actually find pleasure in reading the language.

But even over those who did rather poorly in the language classes we do not grieve. We believe that we have helped them gain an experience. We have shaken them out of their insular position. We have helped them see that there are other people, other ideas, other ways of saying things and looking at facts. Their attempts to learn to read a foreign language have not been wholly wasted.

## BUILDING COMPREHENSION IN SILENT READING

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Although reading as a central objective of foreign language teaching has received considerable attention during the past fifteen years, only a few distinguished teachers like Anne Z. Moore, Henri C. Olinger, Rose L. Pascal, and M. S. Pargment[1] have been of practical assistance to interested readers of the *Modern Language Journal* in describing both the achievement of students in their classes, and the ways and means by which gratifying results in reading skills can be attained.

With the consulting service of one of America's foremost language psychologists and linguists, Professor Walter V. Kaulfers[2] of Stanford

University, the Menlo School and Junior College has been experimenting for several years with programs designed to speed up comprehension in silent reading in the foreign languages, even though the primary linguistic objective of the department has always been the development of life-centered ability in conversation.

In the writer's own classes, work designed to speed up comprehension in silent reading is begun early in the beginning semester. When silent reading procedures are introduced, pupils are made keenly aware of the fact that reading is not a single skill, but a combination of skills like golf, swimming, tennis, or playing the piano.

Contrary to popular impression, oral reading does not develop ability to comprehend printed material with a degree of facility comparable to established norms for silent reading ability in English. Instead, over-emphasis on oral reading and close translation may even interfere with the development of good silent-reading habits.[3] In fact, work limited exclusively to read-aloud-and-translate routines is likely to promote habits of vocalization, or word-reading fixations, which often carry over either visibly, audibly, or mentally into silent-reading techniques. The average literate person can usually pronounce intelligibly only 175 words per minute at best;[4] most range far below this rate. On the other hand, comprehension speeds for silent reading in English range upwards to 500 words per minute—in many cases even higher.[5] Such speeds should also be attainable in reading foreign-language materials *provided they are within the pupils' resources in vocabulary and syntax.* Obviously, however, comprehension speeds cannot go beyond the word-reading rate of 115–175 words per minute if the only practice afforded in the classroom contributes to the development of deterrent word-reading fixations.

Guided practice in silent reading techniques, therefore, is given separately from oral-reading lessons. Separate practice on different materials of similar linguistic and content difficulty is essential, for if only oral reading is practiced, only a mental form of oral reading can at best result. If the same material is to be used for both oral and silent reading, the latter always comes first.

It is the central purpose of the following paragraphs to present a sample student-tested unit used in developing efficient silent reading skills. The unit consists of three parts, corresponding to the normal order of classroom procedure in conducting work in silent reading: (a) an introductory enabling vocabulary, (b) a short selection with the number of words indicated, and (c) comprehension questions on the selection.

In preparing the way for silent reading, the vocabulary is introduced by the teacher, and each item repeated, with definitions, by the class in chorus. This survey may be followed by having the class use the words in short sentences or questions of their own, or the class may be given 10 minutes to study the vocabulary in anticipation of the pre-announced timed-reading test.

1. se había retirado—*had retired*
*2. ejército—*army*
3. orgulloso—*proud*
4. celoso—*jealous*
*5. lo mejor de todo—*the best of everything*
6. oyó hablar de—*he heard about*
7. le dijo—*he said to him*
*8. ¡Ésos no me gustan!—*I don't like those! (Those don't please me!)*
*9. altura—*height*
*10. cortar—*to cut*
*11. a lo menos—*at least*
12. se le parecían mucho a los soldados—*They looked very much like soldiers to him*

* Words repeated from previous work.

The selection itself is now introduced to the group. For example: *Teacher*: "Today, let's see how much Spanish we can understand while reading silently. Let's read as fast as we can possibly afford to read and still be able to understand enough to pass a short test covering the most important points. Turn to the selection *Los Libros del General* now, but do not begin reading until I say 'Start!' As soon as you have finished reading, raise your hand to show that you are through. Then divide the total number of words on the blackboard by the number of minutes that you see written there *at the moment you finish reading*. That will give you the average number of words read per minute. Juan, will you keep track of the number of minutes and seconds on the blackboard? [6] . . . Let's start reading now."

### *LOS LIBROS DEL GENERAL*

Hace mucho tiempo vivía en Venezuela, república de Sud América, un general que se había retirado del ejército. Vivía en confort y seclusión en su casa en Caracas, la capital. Era el general un hombre orgulloso, y muy celoso de su reputación de tener siempre lo mejor de todo.

Un día oyó hablar de una gran colección de libros que había comprado otro general, un rival suyo.

No sabía nada del mundo literario, porque no sabía leer. Por esta razón, le dijo a su secretario:

—El general Rosas ha comprado una gran colección de libros. ¡Favor de comprarme una colección más grande, inmediatamente!

—Sí, mi general—respondió el secretario.

Dentro de un mes tenía el secretario los libros que el general deseaba. Éste miró los libros y le dijo a su secretario:

—¡Ésos no me gustan! Algunos son altos y otros son bajos. En esta casa, como en el ejército, es necesario el orden. Favor de cortar los libros a la misma altura. ¡Siempre vamos a tener orden en esta casa!

—Pero, mi general—protestó el pobre secretario—todos los libros....

—¡Silencio!—respondió el general—¡Los libros no son importantes! Lo importante el el orden. ¡Favor de cortar los libros immediatamente!

Y por muchos años estaba contento el general con los libros que no sabía leer. A lo menos se le parecían mucho a los soldados—todos de la misma altura.

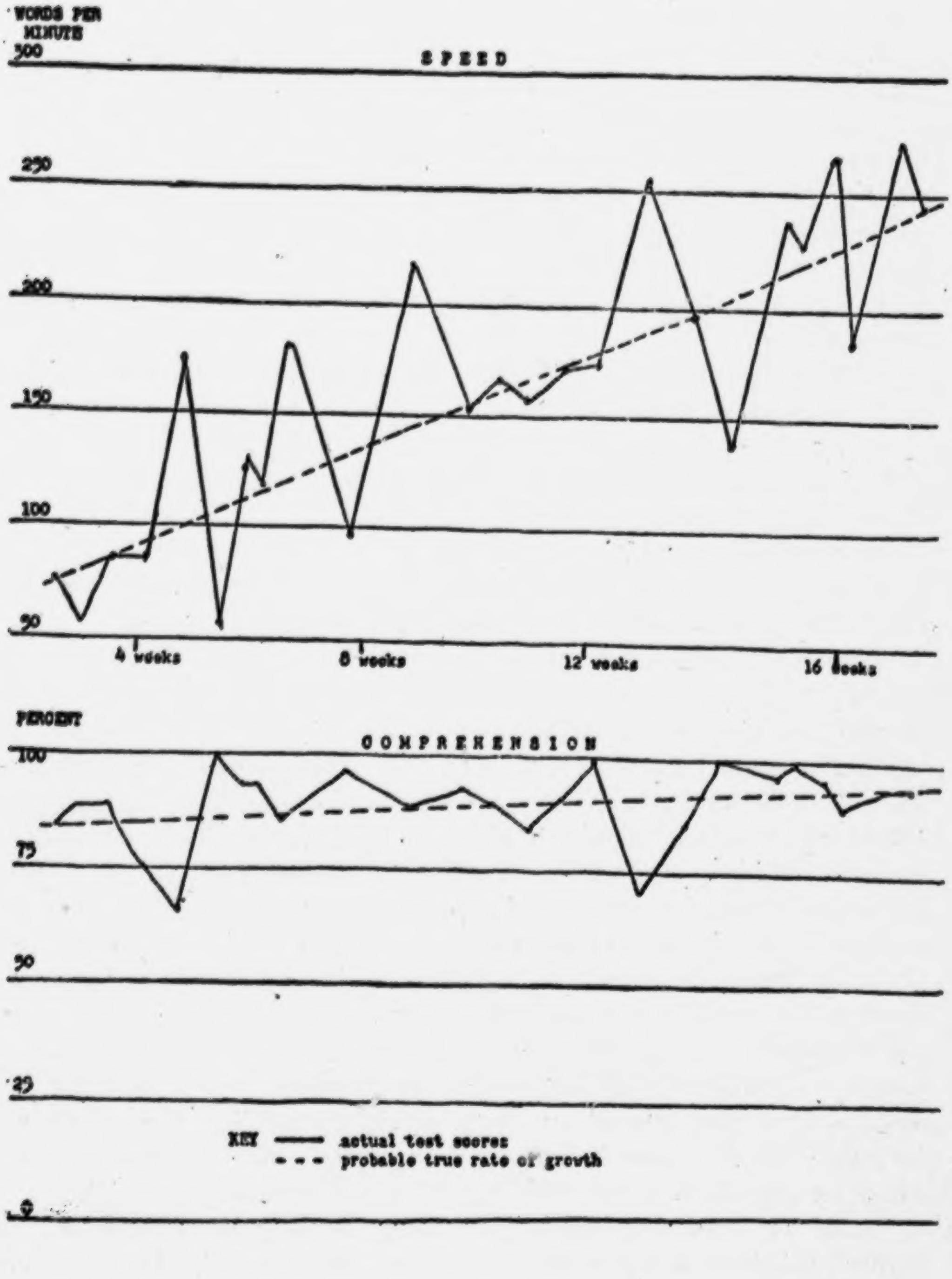
(240 words)
Adaptado de *Leyendas del Uruguay*
Ricardo Hernández

When everyone has finished reading, the teacher says, "Now number a sheet of paper from 1 to 10, and opposite the proper numbers write the correct answers to the following":

1. The general lived in (Venezuela, Mexico, Argentina).
2. The capital was (Mexico City, Caracas, Buenos Aires).
3. The general heard of a large collection of (books, stamps, coins).
4. The general didn't know how to (read, write, sing).
5. The secretary bought the collection in (ten days, a week, a month).
6. In his house the general always wanted (electricity, laughter, order).
7. He ordered his secretary to (cut, burn, sell) the books.
8. The secretary (laughed, protested, resigned).
9. The books looked like (guns, soldiers, books) to the general.
10. The general's rival was general (Rosas, Caracas, Venezuela).

For short comprehension tests, multiple-choice items in English, like those given for this unit, are usually the most satisfactory. Except in the case of special examinations, all informal tests of this kind are dictated. In the beginning, the tests are kept short and easy enough to encourage speed in comprehending essential, main ideas. After word-for-word habits in silent reading have definitely been broken, the comprehension tests are gradually increased in length and difficulty, but only by such imperceptible degrees as to prevent backsliding in speed of comprehension. Since the practice exercises in most textbooks require a thorough knowledge of vocabulary and details, there is not the slightest hesitancy about using the silent-reading procedures indicated above.

Informal comprehension tests are often scored through an exchange of papers in class while the instructor reads the correct answer-words. As soon as the tests have been scored and returned to their owners, the teacher adds:


WORDS PER MINUTE
SPEED
300
250
200
150
100
50
4 weeks
8 weeks
12 weeks
16 weeks
PERCENT
COMPREHENSION
100
75
50
25
0
KEY —— actual test scores
- - - probable true rate of growth

"Now copy this sentence on a sheet of paper, filling in the missing information. Also add the information to your silent reading record sheets. On ———— (date) I read ———— words of Spanish silently with ———— per cent comprehension."

Where ability to read Spanish is the dominant objective of the program rather than ability to use the spoken language, silent-reading tests are given at least twice weekly, and the results kept by the students in the form of a graph showing their progress both in speed and degree of comprehension over 10 to 15 week periods.

Irregularities in reading graphs, such as those shown in the accompanying photostat, are common occurrences, and students are forewarned to expect them. They are usually attributable to the following causes among others:

a. Unequal difficulty of the reading matter used in different tests.
b. Unequal difficulty of the comprehension tests.
c. Variations in the reader's physical or mental condition.
d. Variations in methods of giving the comprehension tests.
e. Distractions during the test.
f. Irregular attendance or absence.

If progress is being made, however, a curve drawn halfway between the modal points on the graph shows the true rate of growth.[7]

Students are also forewarned of "plateaux"—periods of ups and downs during which no real gains are visible because new habits are being formed that are not yet sufficiently developed to be used efficiently. If old habits of word-for-word reading have to be broken before new efficient habits can be strengthened, the student may even expect a temporary decrease in comprehension, followed by a fairly rapid gain as soon as the strangle hold of word-reading fixations is definitely overcome. Where gains are delayed beyond normal expectations, the student may need the services of an oculist far more than of a teacher of Spanish, or he may be so far below the standard for his grade in ability to read ordinary English that work in remedial reading in his native tongue would serve his immediate educational needs far more effectively than any kind of course in Spanish. Conclusions regarding "problem cases," however, are never drawn from one or two tests. All interpretations of a graph are based on *trends shown by a succession of tests over a period of time, never by any single score*. Real growth is not achieved overnight.

None of these suggestions, of course, implies that translation, or careful detailed work is ruled out of the Spanish course. To the extent to which they are essential, these activities are supplied in connection with work in instrumental grammar, semi-original composition, etc. Nor does this approach to the building of comprehension in silent reading imply that selections cannot *later* be made the basis for conversational work, dramatization, or other class activities, if desired.

The reading graphs kept by each student give, as time goes on, a clear and understandable picture of the learner's growth in silent reading ability and in actual practice prove to be of immense psychological and analytical advantage to both student and teacher. By referring to points on the graph the learner can keep his speed in close relation to his ability to understand what he reads. He can be shown that if he reads too fast, his comprehension will be low. He may also find that he can read fairly rapidly with high comprehension, and that it is not necessary to "plod" through material in order to understand it. Students, of course, are forewarned that individual scores may vary, from high to low—that the *trend* is the important thing to watch.

Use of these techniques in unselected Menlo classes has produced group averages of 129 words per minute with 81 per cent comprehension in the first test, given after only four weeks of beginning tenth grade Spanish. At the end of sixteen weeks (first semester) the class average was 166 words per minute with 95 per cent comprehension. Three individual students with I.Q.'s of 102, 106, and 118 had reached 260 words per minute with 100 per cent comprehension. All of us, students and teachers alike, are keenly aware that real growth comes only with constant practice—that it takes many months to reach important goals.

## NOTES

1. Anne Z. Moore, "Reading for Rate and Comprehension in the Foreign Languages." *The Modern Language Journal,* Vol. XXVIII, No. 6, October, 1944; pp. 508–513. Henri C. Olinger, *"What Now in Reading,"* Education, Vol. LV, No. 1, pp. 40–46, September, 1934. Rose L. Pascal, "A Silent Reading Lesson in Third Term Spanish," *High Points,* Vol. XVII, No. 5, pp. 37–39, May, 1935. M. S. Pargment, "What Constitutes a Reading Knowledge of a Foreign Language?" *French Review,* Vol. 17, pp. 74–82, December, 1943.

2. Author, *Modern Languages for Modern Schools, A Cultural Basis for the Language Arts,* etc.

3. Luella Cole, *The Improvement of Reading.* Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., New York, 1938. 338 pages, pp. 59–63.

4. Sandford, William Phillips and Yeager, William Hayes, *Principles of Effective Speaking.* Thomas Nelson and Sons, New York, 1934, p. 271.

5. Taylor, A. E., *Controlled Reading.* University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 126 and *passim.* See also *The News Letter,* Volume IX, No. 3, December, 1943, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, p. 4.

6. Time is kept on the blackboard by a volunteer, temporarily excused from the test, and supplied with a watch that has a second hand. The time-keeper writes the time on the blackboard at ten-second intervals in terms of minutes and tenths of minutes that have gone by since the beginning of the test. For example: "Two

minutes and twenty seconds" is reported on the board as 2.3 since twenty seconds equals one-third, or approximately .3 of a minute. Time-keepers are supplied with a little transmutation-table for the ten-second intervals to prevent these "higher mathematics" from becoming too "deep." If students have difficulty dividing the number of words read by figures containing decimals, both the number of words and the time are multiplied by ten, so as to get rid of the decimal point. For practical purposes, the total number of words is counted only to the nearest number ending in 5 or 0. The counting is usually done by a reliable volunteer before the timed silent-reading tests are given. Perfectly smooth-running operations are readily attainable after experience has been gained from one or two carefully organized tryouts of the plan.

7. Modal points include all except extreme variations, such as unusually high or unusually low scores.

# THE USE OF DIALOGUE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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[From *Foreign Language Monograph No. 3,* N.Y.C. Board of Education, n.d. By permission of the author.]

One of the most interesting possibilities in the foreign language classroom for pupil expression and pupil participation, is the dialogue or dramatized conversation.

If it is properly planned and directed, it may be made one of the most useful forms of exercise for teaching vocabulary, idioms, grammatical constructions and cultural material. It also ought to add considerably to the liveliness and enjoyableness of the lesson, both for teacher and pupil. Of course, the successful use of dialogue presupposes some imagination, ingenuity and resourcefulness on the part of the teacher.

Two essential features of the effective dialogue are the acting out of the situation before the class and the speaking of parts without reference to any book or paper. It must, in other words, consist of dramatized conversation, either memorized or impromptu. Calling upon pupils to "take parts" and to read, alternately, at their seats, some material from a textbook, is not what is intended here. This procedure has its place; it may even be the preliminary step to the dramatized conversation, but it cannot replace it.

In order to make it possible for a number of pupils to experience the pleasure of understanding and speaking the foreign language, the conversation must be kept simple and brief. Not too brief, of course. Simply having pupils bob up to ask "Comment allez-vous?" and getting the answer "Très bien, merci!" is not conversation. This may be the beginning; it ought, however, to be extended and expanded to at least a dozen lines.

Each dialogue ought to be a little unit portraying a scene from daily life or dramatizing an anecdote or a joke. Many useful expressions and idioms may be worked in. In fact, the idiom or grammatical point may be the *raison d'être* of the dialogue. In French, the partitive, the object pronouns, *en,* and time expressions are examples.

Topics which lend themselves very readily to dialogue treatment are: At the Telephone; In the Restaurant; Meeting on the Street; At the Baker's; At the Grocer's; At the Butcher's; At the Station, etc. The possibilities are so unlimited that it is strange that so little along this line has been done in the classroom.

The dialogue can be obtained in various ways. It may be taken from the book. The teacher may write it out as an original conversation. The pupils may make it up. Teacher and class may work it out together.

After it has been completed, the dialogue may be copied into the pupil's notebook. It should be memorized, so that fluency is acquired and attention may be devoted to the accompanying gestures.

In the beginning rigid adherence to the wording of the dialogue will probably be imperative. This will be true, too, of the dramatized anecdote. However, as the pupil gains power and acquires vocabulary, he ought to be able to make substitutions and improvisations, especially where the topic involves chiefly vocabulary building. This would be true of the store and restaurant dialogues, where a variety of things might be ordered. The possibility of indicating personal preferences, would add interest, surprise and humor to the conversation. It would also test the other pupil's ability to frame an adequate reply.

A good part of the effectiveness of the conversation will depend, of course, on the vivacity and expressiveness of the participants. If the dialogue is to be "dramatized conversation," it must be accompanied by appropriate gestures.

A few simple "properties," too, will add to the verisimilitude of the scene. For the telephone conversation, a toy instrument ought to be used. In the restaurant scenes, the waiter should be provided with a napkin and a bill of fare. (The latter may be a real one from some foreign restaurant.) The teacher's desk may be used for the table. With a little thought and preparation, each dramatized conversation may be made a very enjoyable experience; it ought to be "the cream of the lesson."

As many participants as practical should be secured. The telephone conversation will naturally be restricted to two pupils, but the restaurant scenes may contain three, four or more characters.

As soon as the pupils are able to extemporize a scene or introduce variants, they have reached a higher level. I recall with pleasure, a little scene I observed in the English beginners' class (*Sexta*) of a girls' school in Frankfurt. Two tots of ten, who had volunteered to do so, went before the class to discuss the doll one of them was rocking in a cradle. It was practically free conversation, making use of the vocabulary the girls had learned.

"How is your doll this morning?"

"Very well, thank you!"

"What is her name?"

"Her name is Hildegarde."

"Does she have light hair or dark hair?"

"She is blond."

"Does she have many dresses?"

"Oh yes, she has eight."

"What color are they?"

"Red, yellow, blue, green, white, pink, orange and purple."

"Where does your doll sleep?"

"She sleeps in a little bed."

"When does she go to bed?"

"At six o'clock."

"Do you sing her to sleep?"

"Yes, I sing 'Good Evening, Good Night, with Roses Bedight.' Let's all sing it!"

The dialogue closed with the part-singing of Brahms' *Lullaby* by the class, while the owner of the doll continued rocking the cradle. (These ten-year-olds had had English for only three months.)

* * * * *

## THE PROJECT

### Florence M. Baker

[From *The Teaching of French*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1931, pp. 265–273. By permission of the publishers.]

In the few years in which the project has been in general use it has been the subject of many definitions. The amount of literature upon the subject of what a project is and what it is not is becoming quite formidable. This discussion may be desirable in the field of the elementary school where the project is not an incidental unit of the teaching day but a *method* which may embrace every subject in the curriculum. But our objective is a much smaller one. We want simply to see to what extent we can use the project, not as a substitute for what we are doing now, but as a means to help us do our present work more efficiently. For this aim, perhaps the definition of Dr. Kilpatrick will cover adequately our treatment of the subject. He defines it as "a whole-hearted purposeful activity proceeding in a social environment, or more briefly in the unit element of such activity." (*Teachers College Record,* XIX, 4, Sept. 1918.)

It will be obvious, even if we do not accept such a definition at its fullest, that only certain parts of the foreign language curriculum can fit in with the project. Grammar can be broken up into unit elements but the handling of such elements is primarily an individual problem. So, too, with the other purely skill studies, in other words, those in which drill is a primary requisite. It is therefore in the *content* material that the project is going to be of most benefit to us and particularly in that portion of it known as *cultural,* that vast body of information which we hope our pupils will absorb, somehow or other. We have tried to show . . . that one of the reasons why cultural material was not taught more successfully was because there is no technique in presenting it. Even a very little experiment with the project would show it to be an educational instrument of great value in the handling of this difficult subject.

*Outlining the project.* There are many forms in which a project can be developed. For French classes the following general outline will probably be found satisfactory for any type of subject that may be selected:

I. *Statement.* The teacher will choose, either by herself or with the aid of her pupils, some unit of work which will contain a vital interest. She will then write a statement which will serve as a kind of title to her study.

II. *Objectives.* The teacher will then state her aims in planning this study. For each project there will usually be (1) a remote aim, (2) an immediate aim.

III. *Materials.* A list will then be made of the things needed during the development of the project—usually textbooks, magazines, pictures and maps, but the project may also require paints, crayons, etc.

IV. *Procedure.* The procedure will consist of the following steps:

*a.* The teacher gives the class the title of the project.

*b.* There is a discussion on how to go about it. How many pupils will work together? What trips are to be made?

*c.* A time limit is set for the various units of the project.

*d.* The sources of information are given.

*e.* The final form of the project is suggested and the date fixed for its completion.

V. *Estimate of the project.* The complete project will be judged by the teacher after discussion with the class. The following questions will serve in making the estimate:

*a.* Is it a complete development of the study suggested by the title?
*b.* Is it neat in appearance?
*c.* Is it interesting?
*d.* Were any new sources found during the course of the preparation?
*e.* Does it suggest subjects for new projects?

We shall now take some subject of French culture and see how we can develop it and how much information can be obtained from it. It must always be borne in mind that the extent of the project must be limited by the amount of time at the disposal of the teacher. There are many fascinating studies which she would like to continue indefinitely but she must needs return to grammar and composition, which cannot be neglected. The project must necessarily be limited also by the advancement of the pupils. The same subject treated the second year and the fourth year should give very different results in each case both as to quality and quantity. In the former year we must be very careful not to confuse students with a wealth of names or other detail.

The teacher will often find, after she has prepared her outline, that there is too much material for the less advanced pupils. She must therefore lay this one aside and prepare another which will eliminate all but the absolutely necessary subject matter. A project, if allowed to do so, can run on indefinitely. Let us not forget that one of our main reasons for adopting this form is to keep the cultural material within limits.

*A sample project.* The following project will be found suitable for high-school students in the third year and college students in the latter part of the second year.

PROVENCE. A land of vast resources for the traveler whether he comes for study or recreation.

*Objectives.*
1. Remote: To contribute toward a better understanding of French civilization.
2. Immediate: To teach a unit of cultural material.

*Materials.*
1. A map of the French provinces.
2. A political map of present-day France.
3. A physical map of France (not absolutely essential).
4. A small outline map of France for each student.
5. *Le Petit Larousse,* any standard encyclopedia, and whatever travel literature the library affords.

*Procedure.* The names of the old French provinces, though having now no political significance, are still widely used. One of the best known of these is Provence. It is visited by thousands of tourists and by many people from other parts of France. Its history begins long before the Christian era and it was the center of some of the most thrilling events of medieval times.

You may develop your subject under one of the following topics:

1. *Language and literature.* How did Provence get its name? Is Provençal a language or a dialect? Give the reason for its importance. What is the *Poème du Rhône*? Explain the words *troubadour* and *trouvère.* If you have time read Daudet's *Tartarin de Tarascon* for a good idea of the life and spirit of Provence.

2. *Geography.* Compare the map of the provinces with the political map. Get clearly the meanings of the words *province* and *département.* On your outline map trace the boundaries of Provence and put in the Rhone and the important cities. Find the meaning of the following: *Midi, Côte d'Azur, Riviera.*

3. *History.* What different races settled in Provence? Give the approximate dates. Provence is often called the most Latin of the French provinces. Explain this. What part did it play in the history of the Catholic Church? How long has Provence been a part of France? The history of the following towns is very interesting, Arles, Avignon, Aix, Marseilles.

4. *Art and architecture.* In Provence can be found the remains of a Greek theater, Roman baths and amphitheaters, cloisters and churches in five different styles of architecture. Can you name them? Where are the most interesting ruins to be found? What is the Venus of Arles?

5. *Scenery and vegetation.* In Provence we find tropical gardens but also bleak, arid spots. Explain these variations in climate. What does *mistral* mean? Apart from its historical treasures Provence has countless beauty spots. Describe some of them.

6. *Characteristics and occupations.* What kind of people are the inhabitants of Provence? How do they earn their living?

7. *References.* If you do not find sufficient material in the encyclopedia you will have no difficulty in obtaining other literature in the library. There are many books written about Provence—a very good one is *The Spell of Provence,* by A. Hallays. There are also numerous books on travel in France and many of these devote at least a chapter to Provence.

The following are a few suggestions for other projects which may be developed in the early years. As a general rule subjects of geographical and historical interest are best for the early stages and those connected with literature and art for the more advanced.

1. The Canals of France.
2. The Seine in history, geography, and industry.
3. The Châteaux: location, history, architecture, legends.
4. The French in North America.
5. Agricultural and industrial France.
6. The railroads.
7. Provinces of major interest, such as Brittany, Languedoc, Normandie, Auvergne.
8. Special studies of cities such as Paris, Marseilles, Rouen, Lyon, Nancy, etc.

After the teacher has made a list of possible studies she will, after weighing them carefully, note that there are one or two which are necessary for each member of the class while the others may contain material which is not so essential. Thus a project which is designed to give a general idea of the geography of France should be carried on by everyone, while a more minute study of a city or a province should be left to the students who have shown that they are sufficiently advanced in the skills to give it the amount of time it needs. This will seem to make the project a supplement to the course of study but there will always be time for at least one. If the teacher could keep account of the amount of time given to the incidental explaining of cultural material and the constant repetition of proper nouns which have been forgotten, she would find that these minutes if put together would be more than sufficient to develop a worthwhile study. Besides, while pupils weak in skills will get less opportunity for projects than their classmates, there is no reason why they cannot share in the results: that is, they may read and hear the reports of others.

These reports, whether in oral or written form, should be of a high standard of workmanship. In general it should be required that the results of one student's research should be sufficiently attractive in form to be used as a text by other members of the class.

*Advantages of the Project.* The greatest asset that can be obtained from the project is the body of knowledge which it accumulates and puts into convenient form. But there are other assets: training in research, for instance; in silent reading and in the use of a variety of French books which do not contain the vocabularies or the other "helps" of the textbook. Not that the research should always be in French. For any but advanced pupils looking for material in French books must necessarily be very slow so that to require that no work be done in English would turn what was intended to be a piece of creative work into mere drudgery. Students should be encouraged to speak French while working together. This type of conversation will be found far more helpful in acquiring some fluency than the more artificial question-and-answer technique between teacher and pupil.

After the completion of the project the teacher has some data on what her pupils really know. She sees that her objective at the beginning of the year "to teach France as well as French" is beginning to be realized. The content material in French is so vast that unless the students do a great deal of the work themselves it cannot be mastered. There is probably no better machinery for taking it out of the confines of the classroom than a well-planned project. With the steady increase of vocabulary this instrument will naturally become more valuable every year. But even in the case of the short-term students—those who take French two years only—there remains something from the project simple as it may be. Instead of a confused recollection of grammar rules the word French calls up some definite information or at least a feeling of familiarity, of interest in a faraway country. Something has been gained which may help towards further knowledge later on, which will dovetail into one's later reading or travel, and which will give definite repudiation to the statement that high school French is not made use of in later life.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AS AN ACTIVITY

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Language is universally defined as a means of communication, a medium of intercourse. Communication implies a social situation, an exchange of ideas, a speaker and a listener, or a writer and a reader. Therefore, as foreign language teachers, our problem is not how to teach any given amount of subject-matter to our students, but how to develop in them the ability to express their own thoughts and to comprehend the ideas of others through the new medium of exchange. In other words, the chief concern of our students, as it was when they gradually and almost unconsciously acquired mastery over their native tongue, is to achieve the ability to understand, speak, read and write the new language; and *not,* as too frequently appears to be the case, the ability to write a conjugation, recite a list of words, repeat a rule, or translate a page of foreign text. This does *not* mean that conjugations, declensions, paradigms, rules, translations can safely be eliminated from the program; but it *does* mean that they should be recognized, by the pupils as well as by the teacher, as effective learning devices, as shortcuts, perhaps, leading to the attainment of our goal, and never as legitimate ends in themselves.

It is difficult to interest children in the dull routine of acquiring abstract, disconnected facts. It has been said that learning for learning's sake is an acquired taste, like the taste for cigarettes, strong cheese, or impressionistic painting. It is a mature, adult reaction to knowledge. Children are interested in doing things, in their own activity. Hence, any learning process that involves activity on the part of the child strikes a responsive chord and gains, almost automatically, his interest, enthusiasm and co-operation.

A French author has said: "One learns a language as a child learns a game; it is a form of activity rather than of knowledge." If we accept this psychological principle as a working hypothesis, our first problem is to decide what activities a child must engage in, to achieve the ability to understand, speak, read and write the foreign language. As realists, we are obliged to admit that within the limits of a two, or even a four year course, we cannot give our students complete mastery of the language in all its phases. We shall recognize the relative importance of his learning to read and understand as compared with his ability to speak and write, but we shall maintain the validity of giving him some opportunity for self-expression in both speaking and writing, for the sake of his own pleasure and satisfaction during the learning process, if not for the sake of the ultimate goal of complete mastery which he may never attain.

If we consider our problem from the point of view of abilities achieved rather than from the point of view of information acquired, then we must shift our emphasis from the preparation of an assignment, or the recitation of a lesson as such, to the development of power through carrying on, both in and out of class, activities involving the use of the language.

Again, I ask, what are these activities? Let us take them up in order. If our first, if not our most important aim, is to give our pupils the ability to understand the spoken language, we must give them many opportunities to hear it. We must give them the chance to be the audience, to play the rôle of listener, which is a receptive, but never a completely passive rôle. At first, it is only the teacher who can do the talking. She can begin from the very first day with a series of simple monologues, making her meaning clear through the use of objects, pictures, gestures, facial expressions, actions, or by limiting her vocabulary to English cognates or words sufficiently similar to English to be readily recognizable by beginners. These simple soliloquies can evolve gradually, as the class progresses, into the telling of appropriate anecdotes, the relating of personal experiences abroad, the reading of short stories, the describing of pictures, the giving of illustrated talks with postal cards or lantern slides. An always effective means of quickening interest in the living language is a talk, given by a native. And since aural education is a recognized aim of the course, every language laboratory should have a collection of French records, to give the pupils the satisfaction of hearing French as it is spoken or sung and enjoyed in Paris. The rapidly increasing contact with radio programs, foreign films, and news-reels is a tremendous asset to the foreign language teacher in creating in her students an interest in hearing the language spoken and in arousing the desire to understand it better.

As soon as the students have acquired a working vocabulary of their own, they can enjoy the fun of engaging in conversation with the teacher and with each other in conducting the routine business of the class. Grammar exercises, vocabulary drills, and reading lessons can be transformed into delightful pastimes if treated as opportunities to engage in active use of the language, instead of as mere lessons to be recited as ends in themselves.

A grammar exercise may be used as an opportunity for conversation, a vocabulary drill may become a game, and a reading lesson may be dramatized and thus used to stimulate a greater degree of literary appreciation in both actors and audience. It is the joyous activity of the learners, and not any specific amount of information that may or may not be acquired, that is vital in the learning procedure.

Let me be even more specific. If a conjugation is to be learned, let us not limit ourselves to a senseless chanting of meaningless syllables. Just how meaningless conjugations can be is graphically illustrated in the case of an American boy who was "exposed" to French in a boarding school in Paris. With true European thoroughness and precision, he was taught to conjugate fluently and correctly any verb in every tense, but when he used the language to express himself, his verb-forms all came out as infinitives. Granted that his is an extreme case, it shows the gap that still exists in many pupils' minds between what they learn as a lesson in school and any practical application that knowledge might have outside of the classroom situation. I often think that language teachers, more than any others, lay themselves open to the criticism of just such futile abstractions. And that may be why so many people "don't see any use in language study." Instead of perpetuating that time-honored tradition, let us put the verb into a significant sentence, and then, either by asking an appropriate question, or by setting up a model sentence to be imitated, let us create situations in which the pupil must use the verb-form as a tool to express thought, as a means of increasing his power of self-expression. There may come a time when it seems desirable to have conjugations repeated quickly or written rapidly on the board as a check-up in review or as a short cut to the mastery of a new form. When this happens, let us make it clear to ourselves and to the class, that such a drill has meaning *only* as it leads to a greater degree of fluency in speaking, or a readier comprehension in reading. I think that the time for believing in the magic power of conjugations or any other isolated grammatical phenomenon is past. Our concern must always be vital contact with the living language as it expresses connected thoughts. This will inevitably involve emphasis on context, whether it be oral or written.

Mere oral repetition of forms or formulae is not enough. The oral work must be significant, must be based on a specific situation. Language learning is largely dependent upon association of ideas, and the richer and more varied the associations, the easier and pleasanter the learning process. Words, for instance, should not be memorized in isolated word-lists, but should be learned by repeated and varied experiences, much as a child, or an adult in a foreign land, acquires vocabulary. When learning the names of fruits, for instance, the learners should see the fruits, handle them, ask for them and offer them to each other with appropriate expressions of politeness. In learning verbs, the actions should be performed in class insofar as practicable. Response to commands, or pantomime, can be done either by beginners or by advanced students. A child who stands up or frowns or shrugs his shoulders or winks at the appropriate stimulus from the teacher or a fellow-student reveals his understanding of the verb, and, at the same time, teaches it to any of his fellow-students who may not have understood the command. A boy who imitates the gesture of smoking, playing cards, writing, sewing is called upon to use his own imagination and ingenuity in recalling significant words, and at the same time, challenges his classmates to recall them. In addition, such pantomime may give repeated experience, not only with important new verbs, but also with such significant speech-patterns as "Vous êtes en train de ——, Vous faites semblant de ——, Ayez la bonté de ——."

Such pantomimes lead inevitably to simple dramatizations of buying and selling, calling on or receiving friends, and so on. Every year when teaching a grammar lesson entitled "The Lost Hat" the writer contrives to lose her hat somewhere in the classroom so successfully that every pupil in the class has a chance to look for it, tell where he is looking, and end his fruitless search with the formula, "Je l'ai cherché partout; j'ai beau le chercher; je ne peux pas le trouver." Upon occasion the search gets so frantic that the whole class is simultaneously engaged in looking for the teacher's missing headgear. And some students have refused to leave the class until the hat has been found, or rather "trouvé."

With the same purpose in mind, a grammar lesson of several days' duration on "A Box of Candy" reaches its climax with an imaginary trip to a candy-store, where pupils engage in buying and selling candy, and, upon leaving the store, offer it to a companion. Imagine their surprise and delight, upon opening the box, to find real candy in it. Thereupon the entire class engages in the delightful occupation of "eating candy in French." Different pupils take turns offering it to their classmates with varied formulae such as "Puis-je vous offrir des bonbons? Voulez-vous des bonbons? Prenez-en, je vous prie. Servez-vous." And no pupil is allowed to accept a piece until he has responded politely and correctly in French. Thus the necessary memorizing of certain fixed speech-patterns is transformed from a dull lesson in grammar, into a delightful and significant activity.

In connection with oral use of the language, there remain two activities which may occasionally be enjoyed as legitimate classroom procedures, for which no time could be found if we were strictly limited to reciting lessons and completing a definite amount of subject-matter. I refer to the occasional singing of songs and playing of games. Although we must beware of being too often led astray down the by-paths of potential diversions, I sometimes wonder whether learning that knowledge of French, German, Spanish or Latin may be a means of delightful entertainment or pleasure may not be the most vital lesson that our students could learn in a two-year course. After all, in the realm of ultimate immeasurable objectives, isn't the chief value of the study of a foreign language the added pleasure that the student may get from his familiarity with the language, and eventually through that personal satisfaction, a more cultivated and profitable use of his leisure time?

If one takes this broader view, one may occasionally devote an entire class-hour to the working of a cross-word puzzle, the playing of games involving oral use of the language, or the singing of songs, without any sense of guilt or feeling that one may be wasting time. In lieu of other vital contacts with the language outside of the classroom and the school situation, such pastimes as I have mentioned may be our best means of giving a sense of reality to the language we are teaching. After all, a language is not just a school subject, in the sense that geometry, physics or European history is; it is the vital expression of the life of a great nation. In proportion as we play and sing and enjoy ourselves in the language, as well as read, speak, and study it, we can arrive at a deeper understanding and appreciation of the language as well as of the people who are creating it.

Unfortunately, due to obvious lack of time, much of our preoccupation with these types of activity must be relegated to a foreign language club. The broad-minded teacher with a vision of the contribution that foreign language study can make to a liberal education will recognize their validity and will include them in the curriculum whenever possible.

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So much for developing the power to speak and understand. Now let us turn to what, for most of us, must be our primary objective, namely, developing, in our students, the reading adaptation, ability to read French at much the same rate and with the same degree of understanding and pleasure as English. In this connection, let us examine Michael West's theory of specific practice, namely the principle that our students must "learn to read by reading." This does not mean by translating, by thumb-ing the dictionary, by lining the text with English words, by deciphering. It means that both in and out of class pupils must read their foreign texts, just as they read their English books, for the sake of the intrinsic interest in the story itself, and not in order to recite it. Their reading should be for the sake of comprehension and *not* for the sake of translation!

This means, perhaps, a change in textbooks as well as a change in teaching techniques. Carrying out such a program consistently would necessitate not only very easy readers to begin with, but a very gradual increase in vocabulary and difficulty of construction. Reading should not be begun until the pupils have a minimum essential vocabulary which will enable them to understand their first reading assignments without the constant interruption and irritation of meeting unknown words. From then on, the teacher can do one of two things; she can either read the new lesson aloud to the class before assigning it, simplifying, paraphrasing, explaining, emphasizing new and significant words as she reads; or else she can precede the pupils' preparation with a complete and adequate vocabulary drill, teaching all the new words to be met in the lesson. Either procedure will enable the pupils to read, understand and enjoy the passage as a connected story and not just as a conglomeration of strange and difficult words to be memorized or as an intricate jig-saw puzzle to be solved.

The preparation of any reading assignment should accomplish either one or both of two objectives: namely, it should increase the reader's vocabulary and, through his ever-widening repertoire of familiar words, increase his degree of comprehension and his rate of reading. The ideal way to learn words is through reading experience, by meeting the same words on the printed page so often that their meaning becomes clear and is easily retained. But because our reading texts and reading courses are not, as yet, completely coordinated with reference to vocabulary-building, most of our reading will have to be accompanied and supplemented by persistent vocabulary drill.

Such drill should precede as well as follow the preparations of the reading assignment. It should precede in order to permit the students to recognize and understand all of the new words as they read, and thus grasp the meaning of the context as a whole without delay or stumbling over individual words; and it should follow in order to use the content of the reading matter as a natural point of departure around which to center further review, resulting in final mastery of the vocabulary. In the drill which precedes, the teacher must create context in which to place the new words; in the drill which follows, the context is already present in every pupil's mind and interest. It is essential to capitalize on that interest to lead the student to complete mastery of the words. It is one thing to understand words in context; it is quite another to recognize them in a new situation or even in isolation. A learner cannot be said to know the meaning of a word as a unit of speech unless he knows it as a complete entity in and by itself. Hence, the need for more systematic, intensive and conscious study of words than the incidental learning that takes place during the reading process.

There are many dynamic ways of helping students to acquire a mastery over new words. Since learning words is primarily a memorizing process, which, in turn depends on association of ideas, the teacher's task is to provide as rich and varied an association with the new words as possible. Provision of such associations will involve use of the word in many different contexts so that its meaning "emerges." The pupil may repeat the word in answering questions, completing statements, making up his own sentences or by defining the word in the foreign language. Such drill as this will have as its objective, not the development of oral fluency, but the oral repetition of specific words and speech-patterns. Therefore the teacher will not insist upon complete, well-rounded sentences, but will emphasize rather the quick, spontaneous, automatic response in repetition of specific words to be learned.

By calling for synonyms or opposites already familiar, by pointing out derivations from English, Latin, or other languages, by calling attention to relationships to other known words in the foreign language, the teacher is helping the student not only to increase his vocabulary, but at the same time to improve his technique of learning new words. The teacher may require the students to write these words in systematic classified lists in their notebooks. These lists then furnish the basis for daily reviews and frequent tests. The review may be transformed from a dull task into a stimulating challenge by all sorts of ingenious devices, games, contests, pantomimes, impersonations. Verbs may be acted out, nouns may be defined, and adverbs and adjectives interpreted in various ways. Such drills will involve a great deal of oral work and, because they take time, can be indulged in only to develop thorough familiarity with the words of greatest range and frequency, which should become a part of the learner's permanent active vocabulary. It is these words which become the tools that the reader must use in increasing his power to read and interpret the printed page. The oral drill is thought of as a process of sharpening the tools in preparation for reading.

In order to eliminate the need for translation there must be constant insistence upon complete mastery of a minimum essential vocabulary. This will involve daily drills and reviews, with frequent vocabulary tests in which the students must be trained to strive for perfect scores. Each student should write a list of all the words he has missed in any given vocabulary test, study them and rewrite them on the following day, thus satisfying himself and his teacher that he now has adequate command of these essential thought-units and is ready to proceed in his reading. Vocabularies are to be mastered, not in order to engage in oral activity, not to get a passing grade in a vocabulary test, but always in order to increase one's ability to read. In determining which words should be retained in the pupil's permanent vocabulary, the teacher will find the French, German and Spanish Word Books published under the auspices of the Modern Foreign Language Study extremely helpful.

In addition to the reading that the pupil does in class in order to increase his vocabulary range at a steady rate of progress, he should be practising reading in a book in which he will meet no new words. By reading an easier book than the class text, a book in which he meets no difficulties, no "linguistic snags," the learner has a chance to measure and enjoy his progress and to increase his reading rate. As long as the reading texts are simple, easy, interesting and within their vocabulary range, students respond willingly to this challenge. With the appearance of the new-type readers, edited on different vocabulary levels, it becomes increasingly possible to put into the hands of our students stories of intrinsic interest which they can read and enjoy.

Thus, if one of our aims is to give our pupils the power to read, then, obviously, we must offer them many opportunities to engage in reading both in and out of class, *not* as a means of illustrating grammatical principles, nor as a means of improving the use of the mother-tongue through translation, but primarily as a means of understanding and enjoying the story. In order to emphasize reading for content, we will adopt adequate testing devices to measure comprehension and reading power, sometimes testing comprehension of the prepared lesson, sometimes testing comprehension of an unfamiliar passage. In either case, the emphasis will always be on the ability to read, understand and interpret the printed page.

Frequent tests on unfamiliar passages with emphasis on rate of reading bring out the desirability of eliminating translation and of increasing speed in reading, and impress on the students the importance of developing reading power through practice and through mastery of vocabularies. This is where the emphasis should be, rather than on the knowledge acquired in the preparation of any one lesson.

Testing devices include questions to be answered in English, sentences to be identified as true or false, statements to be completed, and multiple-choice exercises. Occasional speed drills will stress the importance of concentration and will help to eliminate the tendency to translate. They may be administered in various ways. The reading of each student may be timed and recorded as he finishes, or the group as a whole may be allowed a limited time in which to read a given passage. Before administering such tests the teacher should be sure that all the words or at any rate all the key-words of the passage are familiar to the students. In writing the test the pupils may either be allowed or forbidden to refer to the reading passage. In case they are not permitted to look back, the teacher must make her test of such a nature that she is testing their comprehension of the passage as a whole rather than their memory of intricate and insignificant details. The students are usually interested in the results they attain in such tests, not only in their grades which reveal to them their degree of comprehension, but also in their actual reading rate. Knowing whether a student is a slow or a rapid reader may give the alert teacher an insight into a weak pupil's learning problems, or may make her realize that a quick reader should be stimulated to greater efforts in extensive outside reading.

In addition to the prepared class reading, the supplementary outside reading, and the reading tests which I have discussed, there are two more activities in connection with reading which are a stimulating challenge in themselves, because they too focus the attention on growth in power and ability, rather than on knowledge. I refer to sight-reading or sight-translation. Through the use of these devices, the teacher may speed-up the class work by reading ahead in the regular text, or she may supplement the class work by using an easier book in which sight-reading is done at regular intervals. Either sight-reading or sight-translation reveals individual differences and difficulties and class progress as a whole. Both of them might be considered as practice in inference. If the passage is being translated, the teacher must either supply the meaning of the unknown words, or she must guide the student's thinking so that he can deduce the correct meaning, as he does with unfamiliar words that he meets in English; namely, through the context, or because of similarity to a word already known in English, Latin or some other language, or because of its relationship to a known word in the same language. If the passage is being read instead of being translated, the teacher should do the reading aloud, in order that the understanding of the context may not be interrupted by constant correction of mistakes in pronunciation. In many cases, the teacher's inflections may clarify an otherwise obscure passage and she can always substitute simple synonyms and otherwise elucidate the text with least delay and interruption of thought-processes if she is doing the reading.

* * * * *

Even translation, which, in most cases, should be used as a medicine, rather than as a diet, may become a stimulating and challenging activity if properly motivated. Since the three chief objectives of translation, namely, training in precision, increase of English vocabulary, and the development of keener literary discrimination, are all legitimate by-products of any language study, we will occasionally admit translation into our course. But when we do, we will consider it as a fine art, on a level with literary expression in any form, and we will bend every effort to do justice to the beauty of style and thought-content of the original. M. Desclos, a distinguished French educator, has defined translation as "rethinking a thought." He says, in substance, that in order to give an adequate translation, one must first understand the author's thought and feeling in all its depth and finesse and eloquence, with due regard for the "harmonics" or "overtones"; then, one must "reassemble" it, reshape it according to the rhythm and cadence of one's native tongue.

Such translation will result in lively discussions, critical analysis of style, constant references to both English and French dictionaries, and delicate decisions on the basis of judgment, acumen and taste. A translation lesson thus directed demands alert response, constant intellectual activity on the part of the pupils, imposing, as it does, quick thinking, fine discriminations and detailed study of words and style.

Although writing will largely be limited to the writing of grammatical exercises and an occasional original composition based on a picture or story, it is well to realize that in the whole realm of language study there is no activity that arouses greater interest and enthusiasm than that of corresponding with a foreign boy or girl. Whether the letter be written in the native or the foreign tongue, whether our students are struggling with the intricacies of the foreign idiom in trying to express themselves or trying to interpret the messages from abroad, they have a chance to measure their command of the language by intimate contact with a foreign pupil of their own age. Never are pupils so interested in perfecting their knowledge of grammar or in increasing their familiarity with foreign idioms as in response to the stimulus of a letter from across the seas. Engaging in international correspondence involves both reading and writing the language. This is an activity which may be begun in class and then carried on independently during vacation periods and often for years to come. Nothing short of an actual trip to Europe can make the language seem so vital, so fascinating, so infinite in its possibilities for continued growth and ever widening interests.

So far, I have said nothing about the cultural content of the course in relation to the information to be acquired about the geography, history, literature, legends, folk-lore, manners and customs, art and music of the people whose language we are studying. Here, too, the acquisition of knowledge can be transformed into dynamic activity by the use of pictures

# ACTIVITIES IN THE GARDEN CITY PROGRAM OF FRENCH INSTRUCTION

[From *French Instruction*, Monograph No. 1, Department of Modern Languages, Garden City High School. Copyright, 1944, Board of Education, Union Free School District No. 18, Town of Hempstead, Nassau County, N. Y.]

Interest in French is also furthered by publications of a French newspaper and two active French Clubs.

Chantecler, the 6-page French newspaper, published 8 times a year by the Senior High School students, encourages writing. It gives to members of the staff valuable training in the mechanics of the language and of publication. The 8th grade contributes a page under the guidance of a Senior High staff member.

The *Chantecler medal* for *general excellence* in French is presented annually at Commencement to a Senior having earned 4 units in French.

The French Clubs meet alternate weeks. The *Junior High Club* enjoys French games, conversation and projects of its choice. Among its projects have been,—making a game similar to "monopoly" with the French provinces, thus teaching names and location of them; setting up a grocery store and "playing store" in French; building of a Guignol theater and puppets. Directions for this and plays later presented by the Club were found in *Guignol à l'Ecole* published by the Gessler Publishing Company, Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y. Several of this company's publications furnish interesting song and game material for the Club.

In the *Senior High Club*, the students preside according to parliamentary procedure. Speakers, chiefly French persons, are the honored guests at every other meeting. Projects are usually worked on at the alternate meeting, though games are also enjoyed.

Frequent trips are taken by individual classes or groups, such as a trip to a French restaurant or movie in New York, to give a class demonstration in a university, to a French play at Hunter College, or to attend the Montclair State Teachers College Dance Festival.

The administration furthers the cause, as it does for all departments, and has devoted one issue of the "Newsletter" to the work of the Modern Language Department.

An annual Modern Language Night has done much to unify the students of the department and to encourage students in French as well as in the other modern languages taught.

These have been in varying forms. All but the latest have been stage performances presented by the students in the foreign language. Let it suffice here to mention the last two. The first presented on the stage in speaking, dance and song, a Spanish fiesta and a French café scene, each from 30 to 40 minutes in length. They were informal and action was almost constant with the result that students lost a consciousness of stage atmosphere, really enjoyed themselves and proved that they felt very much "at home" in the foreign language. This was most enthusiastically received by a large audience.

The same was true, however, of the most recent "Night" of an entirely different type. The values to be received from modern language study was the theme of the occasion, the slogan adopted by the students being the recent words of Sumner Welles and Nelson Rockefeller, "Help Defend and Strengthen America by Learning a Foreign Language." A speaker of national note addressed the capacity audience on "The Foreign Language Reveille: Foreign Languages and National Defense" and music by French and Spanish composers was presented by a well-known pianist. The State Supervisor of Modern Languages was present and brought a brief message to the students and their parents. This part of the program was followed by an extensive exhibit in the gymnasium showing the results in picture and project form of the research done by the students of the department on the subject. These results were grouped under the following heads:

Unit 1—Do you know that ............?
Unit 2—Vocational opportunities offered by modern language study.
Unit 3—Influence of foreign culture in North America.
Unit 4—Aids to language learning.
Unit 5—Contributions to the United States made by the foreign-born within our borders.
Unit 6—Have you visited these places in Manhattan?
Unit 7—Chronological development in history, science, literature and arts (French, German, Spanish.)
Unit 8—Foreign elements in the English language.

The presence of many college professors of the metropolitan area as well as of parents and friends, teachers and students of surrounding schools, encourages the students in their efforts.

# THE USE OF GAMES IN THE MODERN LANGUAGE CLASS AND CLUB

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[From *FR,* XIII, 1, Oct. 1939, 15–25.]

* * * * *

This article is presented in an effort to demonstrate to modern language teachers that games provide a most effective means of disguising the two prime requisites of all language study, coordination and repetition, which necessarily entail drudgery.

As teachers, we have three media to work with—pupils, their attitudes, and subject matter. We can do little to change the essential nature of pupils, but we can disguise the subject matter by the manner of presentation, and thus we can do practically what we will with the attitude of the pupil.

Thus play can function as work and work as play despite the age-old misconception that the distinction between the two is a rigid one, work being useful activity and play useless. There is no doubt that this was the belief of those who preceded us in the teaching of modern languages much to our misfortune. In a period when teachers of other subjects had first begun to make faint concessions to "The American Way," foreign language teachers tightened their lips, and exclaimed with a bravado we do not possess, "That which is simple, practical, amusing or entertaining shall have no part in modern language instruction." If the language course was not the acme of discomfort, it did not merit the name of culture.

## THE PLACE OF GAMES IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLUB AND CLASS

The place of games in the activities of the average French Club is already undisputed. In a recent study of French Club activities in the secondary schools of New York State,[1] games were rated by one hundred and nine French Club sponsors as the most important and valuable activity.

Of the many varied activities which can be carried on by a French Club, games are so highly rated for several reasons, and for these reasons games can be valuable in class work as well. They have never been used, however, to any great extent in the teaching of foreign languages. The meagre collections of games now on the market have served merely for entertainment in the foreign language club, rather than for an organized device in class work.

It is only normal that the average junior and even senior high school pupil finds participation in games a joyful experience, since they satisfy the desire for group participation.

Equally important is the fact that the spirit of competition, sharpened by contest, is naturally accompanied by intense interest, concentrated and unwavering attention, and, above all, a desire to improve one's own record.

Equally, games stimulate and develop a very valuable sense of cooperation, the desire to subordinate oneself as an individual to the interest of the group.

In no other activity in class or club is it possible for all members of the group to participate actively in a given period of time.

At a certain period in the average child's life, games become an exercise of the intelligence, a mental recreation as well as a physical one. This change usually occurs between the ages of thirteen and sixteen. Because of this very interest foreign language games prove to be stimulating, and are so very often the incentive to extra "activity" which otherwise would be only boring "work."

The greatest difficulty is the fact that all types of games are not suitable for the language club. Several problems arise in connection with their choice. They must deal with material simple enough to be within the pupils' grasp, yet they must not be childish games. For this reason games played by French children of similar age are far too difficult for our pupils. On the other hand, games played by younger French children are decidedly beneath the dignity of our junior or senior high school pupils. Thus the solution for this problem does not lie in merely importing French game books, which are very rare.

In the foreign language class and club, the games must be based on language rather than on action, or there is no justification for their inclusion in the language course or club. A survey of game books in almost any language shows that by far the majority of games described are "action games." This is perhaps the first difficulty which confronts the teacher who attempts to "collect" games. Years as a French Club sponsor and particularly the experience of inaugurating French courses in the kindergartens and elementary schools of Pelham, New York, emphasized the author's belief in games as an important language teaching device. A "collection" of games and word puzzles was at that time begun, and has now reached three hundred.

The game, of course, furnishes only the frame, but there is sufficient material with which to develop each frame for more games than any class or club will ever find time to play, and it is to be found in the various sections of the language syllabus—vocabulary, verb forms, and other mechanics, points of history, geography, and civilization. As Rousseau said, "There is nothing one can teach children that cannot be made into a game."

## THE VALUE OF GAMES IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASS AND CLUB

Games develop alertness and the powers of concentration. More important still for our purposes, the greatest value of games lies in the fact that it is often possible to instruct by games in an entertaining manner which often inspires the pupil to exert far greater effort than he would in undisguised, boring drill. What could be more satisfying than to have spent fifteen or twenty minutes enjoying a game based on verbs, and then to discover that, in addition, one really has the forms much better in mind?

If the procedure of dividing the group into two stationary teams is adopted, team spirit, a definite and powerful incentive, is encouraged.

It must be remembered that the pupil should have at least a "passing acquaintance" with the words, expressions, or forms which are to be used in a definite game before he begins to play, if he is to survive the game. The pupil soon realizes this necessity, which acts as a powerful stimulus to learning.

In class or club, it is most important for the teacher to remember that games are not primarily a teaching device but for review. They offer an enjoyable way of getting the pupil to use words that he already knows, of giving them a much firmer place in his memory. Games furnish the pupil with an incentive to renew the learning process and are, above all, an aid in making passive vocabulary active. By far the largest number of games deals with vocabulary.

To many teachers it may seem that games have fulfilled their objectives when a group has been amused and diverted. This is, of course, one point of view and no attempt is intended to belittle the importance of such diversion. However, it is the author's contention that the playing of games can make a far greater contribution to language work when they are based on the organized material of the syllabus. There are, for example, innumerable games which have as their objective not only the learning of vocabulary ("learning" is here used in the sense of making passive vocabulary active) but the still more important and difficult process of instant recall. This is the very core of all success in language work. Through the reflection necessitated by games, retention can be strengthened and the process of instant recall facilitated.

Pupils, of course, may play games by the hundred and never derive any lasting benefit. The degree to which games can make a contribution to the teaching of foreign languages is in exact proportion to the skill with which the material on which they are based is organized.

Objectives, it must be remembered, are never achieved accidentally and haphazardly; they must be planned. If planned in conjunction with the course of study, games may often be used as an effective means for remedial instruction. The grammatical points which may be drilled and reviewed by this means are innumerable. The emphasis will very naturally differ from group to group.

## GAMES AND THE OBJECTIVES OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASS AND CLUB

In general it might be stated that the following are the major objectives of foreign language study:

*A*) To bring the pupil actually to speak the foreign language.

*B*) To inoculate the pupil with the culture of the foreign country.

*C*) To increase generally the culture of the student and to broaden his whole outlook, so that he will think in terms of world fellowship.

*D*) To increase his understanding of his neighbors, the institutions, customs, manners, traditions, ideals, beliefs, character and life, culminating in an appreciation of the great moral, aesthetic and artistic contributions of the country.

*E*) To acquaint him with the literary, musical, scientific, artistic and historical contributions made through the medium of the language.

*F*) To familiarize him with the geography of the country, its scenic wonders, natural phenomena and feats of engineering and monuments.

*G*) To increase his desire to emulate particular traits.

*H*) To show the relationships existing between foreign peoples and his own.

*I*) To show the relation between the foreign languages and his own.

*J*) To show the influence of the foreign country in his own country.

Games, if properly organized and adapted, can always contribute to the attainment of those objectives which deal with factual knowledge or with the mechanics of language. For example, it would be a rather difficult task to devise games which would contribute to the attainment of Objective *B*—"To inoculate the pupil with the spirit of the foreign country." This could be far more effectively done by means of other activities, such as dramatization of historical events, songs, slides and films, for this objective deals not so much with factual knowledge as with emotional reactions. The latter type of objectives are the broad, basic reasons for the study of foreign languages, but games cannot serve their attainment.

On the other hand, games lend themselves to that attainment which is, of all, the most important objective—Objective *A*—"To bring the pupil to actually speak the foreign language." Games may be likened to finger scales (than which they are, of course, more enjoyable) which have as their purpose the strengthening of finger muscles and the development of a mastery of mechanics and technique. However, no matter how important they may be, they are not an end in themselves. In the same way, games can do much to help the pupil to a mastery not only of a fair sized vocabulary but of facts concerning the foreign country.

Games can contribute equally to the attainment of Objective *E*—"To acquaint the pupil with the literary, musical, scientific, artistic, and historical contributions made through the language" and of Objective *F*—"To familiarize the pupil with the geography of the country, its scenic wonders, natural phenomena and facts of engineering and architecture." These objectives, obviously, are based on the knowledge of facts. Every teacher of foreign languages will doubtless agree that the average pupil's fund of information in these respects is distressingly meagre. Games based on this material introduce the pupil to this field of information without which he really knows very little about the country of which he is studying the language. Surely the outstanding names in the field of science, art, and music are fully as important as the principal parts of "résoudre."

The "collection" of three hundred games mentioned above has been grouped under eight headings, which indicate the type of material which can best be taught by means of these games—vocabulary, spelling, comprehension, composition, functional grammar, mechanics, and cultural material.

Due to the conviction that the passive vocabulary is not too successfully made active by means of most types of exercises found in most grammar texts, the author has devised one hundred and fifty word puzzles intended to increase the knowledge of synonyms.

Very early in the language course, if the pupil is ever to attain any degree of fluency in the foreign language, there is great need of emphasizing synonyms. This necessity is too often neglected for the purpose of continually translating from the foreign language into English. The latter device is, of course, necessary to a certain degree, but not to the point of preventing the pupil from grouping and linking word sequences in the foreign language.

The vocabulary used in these puzzles is taken largely from the Vander Beke *French Word Book* and from the New York State Regents Syllabus.

Thus the material is sufficiently elementary to prove interesting as well as challenging to the secondary school pupil. In addition, the mental effort required for the solution of such puzzles is an excellent way to increase the pupil's vocabulary. Needless to say anything in the form of a puzzle has a definite attraction. These puzzles encourage the use of the dictionary. This habit of itself is a most precious result.

### The Direction of Games

The problem of directing games is far simpler than the direction of many other foreign language activities, for example, musical or dramatic programs. The latter types require not only hours of preparation and drill, but in addition expert skill on the part of the sponsor and pupil.

Games, however, require no rehearsals. In the overcrowded school day this is a fact to be remembered with satisfaction. After the teacher has developed the knack of directing games, their success depends on several simple points.

The method of introducing games will naturally differ from group to group. Some teachers may prefer to plan a series of unified programs of games to be played during the course of the year. If this method is adopted, much enthusiasm can be aroused by having the group choose two team leaders and by dividing the group into two competitive units, the personnel of which remains unchanged throughout the year.

This plan has several advantages. A far stronger *esprit de corps* is developed than if the personnel of the competing teams changes from week to week, not to mention the saving of time involved.

When the personnel of each team remains static, the score can be kept through the year, and if so desired, the awarding of a prize adds much to the interest of contestants. The incentive which this competition provides is conducive to far more work on the part of the pupils than one might imagine.

If the program of games is planned for the year or at least a portion of the year, the material on which the games are to be based can and should be announced in advance. This preparatory procedure is the only effective one if games are to be more than mere fooling. If games are to help the pupil learn by means of use and repetition, it is obvious that he must come to the game program with at least some acquaintance with the material on which the games are based. In other words, a certain amount of learning must precede the game activity which has as its purpose the reenforcement of learning. Their great value toward this end is the incentive to learning which they offer the pupil.

The teacher may direct the games, or in certain circumstances, she may well delegate this work to one pupil after the other through the year. It is necessary that the pupil chosen is confident and a leader, for there is nothing more likely to ruin the enjoyment and value of games than an uncertain, timid, nervous leader who is unable to hold everyone's attention. For this reason the teacher should explain the games carefully to the leader well in advance of the competition.

Whether teacher or pupil leader directs the games, there are several points to bear in mind. The games, first of all, should be carefully explained to the group, and the teacher should make sure that everyone understands.

Perhaps the most important thing to remember is that games should never lag. They should be characterized by intense interest and an atmosphere of "pep." If the interest of the group even begins to wane, the game should be changed at once, for the same material can be used in many different games.

All games, obviously, will not have an equal interest for all clubs. Interest depends on numerous factors such as age, ability, interests and training.

Pupils invariably become overfond of one or two games for which they clamor insistently. This must be guarded against if any worthwhile variety is to be achieved.

In conclusion it might be said that an effort has been made to present the serious features and possibilities of play in the foreign language course.

## NOTE

1. *The Status, Objectives, and Values of French Club Activities in the Secondary Schools of New York State,* Amelia E. Anthony (Doctor's Dissertation, New York University, 1936).

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## A SERIES—A LIGHT APPROACH TO A SERIOUS MATTER

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[From *H,* XXVIII, 4, Nov. 1945, 539–543.]

The series of ninety-nine sentences which follows is the result of search for a practical solution to those difficulties that lie in the way of the high-school student who is beginning to *talk* Spanish. The students in our school are not, for the most part, the sort of students one reads about in books or cheerful magazine articles. They are not eager to read anything at all; not even in English, certainly not in a foreign language. The idea of spending several years creating such a skill for themselves would strike them as proof of a peculiarly unattractive form of madness. They long neither to answer nor to make up for themselves questions—serious, cute, or droll—based on the Spanish versions of "The Three Bears" or that other favorite of theirs, "This Little Pig Goes to Market." This is the very sad truth, in spite of the fact that they are lucky enough to find these little masterpieces, one in each of their texts.

Our students want merely, but very emphatically, to be their own very healthy, very charming selves. They are intelligent, warm-hearted and of a frankness which beguiles when it does not slay. Upon those great dust-heaps of learning by which we teachers set such store they turn the eye which sees not, and toward us, bright-smiling salesmen of the unmarketable, the unhearing ear. They cleave with a fine loyalty to that alone through which they see, across the vast deserts of learning, the lovely mirage of their turbulent, unique, and thrilling lives. It is not that they mind learning a bit of Spanish; as a matter of fact, they are eager to learn it, but on their own terms, and with as little as possible of "book-larnin'." We who know so much that we can split a summer's paradise into months and weeks and days, and can measure ecstasy itself in minutes to arrange it for the radio, have forgotten the tremendous immediacy of childhood's urges, the power it has to obliterate in an instant the past and the future and to seize on the passing moment. Our students know, as we can only feebly guess, the colorless quality of trips to alien lands that will almost certainly never be theirs.

They are sure of one thing only: that they are alive right now. The glamour of the Spanish Main pales beside the breath-taking romance of the lives of those whom we blandly limit as "students," beside the unbelievable characters who are framed for a moment in the glass of the classroom door or run free through the larger vistas of the windows opening on the campus. We older folks have by now forgotten that Balboa's first long look over the Pacific was a pretty dull affair when you compare it with what lies within easy reach of the naked eye inside our own school walls, a mere nothing beside the thrill of many a telephone call. We have forgotten too that waking from a dream about a language teacher might quite legitimately hold its own for sheer terror and relief with any favorite tall tale we may like to bring up, however well spiced with Aztec priests or mammoth boa constrictors. A more supple approach, and a bit more of a sense of humor, might not come amiss.

Considering that the chief problem which faced my pupils was the fluent use of verb and pronoun, I sat down one night, the first of a number of nights, and listed the verbs that in any case they should have to learn in order to finish their first year's work in the grammar they use. From that list I concocted the series that follows in almost its present form, applying the verbs unrelentingly to the daily life of my young people. We add the learning of this series to the bare essentials of grammar and to a good bit of reading, intensive and extensive, in both English and Spanish. We have found that the series fixes in the mind several score of verbs that put backbone into the student's ability both to speak and to read, and that, as a sort of corollary, the reading, easier now and much more pleasant, broadens the student's ability to form variations on the series and so adds variety to his conversations. The use of these sentences has accomplished something not much less than a miracle in getting students who never would so much as try before actually to talk. Besides, it slips in a good number of nasty little points of grammar without leaving in the eager mouth the usual bitter taste.

Within these innocent-looking phrases lie imbedded forty-nine verbs of the *-ar* conjugation, nine of the *-er*, eleven of the *-ir*, and sixteen of the most common irregular verbs (so that, outside of the series, one need work on only a few irreconcilables: *caber, conocer, saber, traducir, traer, valer, venir*). The series includes radical-changing verbs and orthographic changes in *-car, -gar, -zar, -ger*, and *-guir*. They are learned in the only way that is valid for them or for other verbs: in sentences, which are easily remembered and which offer in themselves something of a reward for the task of memorizing them. Besides this study of the verb, there is drill on difficulties as varied as the following: the substitution of the definite article for the possessive adjective when speaking of parts of the body (Nos. 7, 10, 85) or of articles of clothing (13, 24); the form and position of the pronoun objects, direct (25, 47, 52, 62, 79, 81) and indirect (55, 56, 58, 63, 65); the use of the reflexives; the necessity for certain prepositions after certain verbs (14, 16, 23, 67, 91, 93). Nothing lends itself more easily than does this series to teaching the affirmative and negative commands, as the great number of reflexive verbs drills in the troublesome variation in position of the pronoun objects. The subjunctives too emerge from the haze of theory into a natural atmosphere when used in expressions as close to home as "My mother wants me to come home early tonight."

It is, of course, possible to present the series to a class in many ways. We have found the form suggested by Walter V. Kaulfers in his *Modern Languages for Modern Schools* (page 15), the most effective one, although at the start it works very slowly. We combine this form with the use of contrasting pairs of adverbs of time or manner taken from a list based on the suggestions of Frederick Bodmer in his *The Loom of*

*Language* (especially the figures on pages 134, 135, 137, 138, 139) and checked against the texts we use and the idiom and word lists of Keniston and of Buchanan. Not all of the sentences lend themselves to treatment with opposing pairs of adverbs. In such cases one substitutes nouns or whole phrases, but one takes care to keep the verb itself intact. The series reaches the class in something like this form:

—¿No se despierta Vd. temprano todos los días?
—No, señor. No me despierto temprano todos los días; me despierto tarde todos los días.
—¿No se despiertan Vds. temprano todos los días?
—No, señor. No nos despertamos temprano todos los días; nos despertamos tarde todos los días.

In our first semester we teach the whole series, in the first and third persons, singular and plural, as above, but in the present indicative only. In the second semester we concentrate on the preterite and imperfect tenses. In the third, we work on all the remaining tenses, including those of the subjunctive, but neglecting the relatively rare imperfect subjunctives in *-ase* and in *-iese*, and completely ignoring the future subjunctive.

## THE DAY OF A TYPICAL AMUNDSENITE

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. I wake up. | Me despierto. |
| 2. I hear the alarm. | Oigo el despertador. |
| 3. I get up. | Me levanto. |
| 4. I turn off the alarm. | Cierro el despertador. |
| 5. I take a bath. | Me baño. |
| 6. I dry myself with a towel. | Me seco con una toalla. |
| 7. I brush my teeth. | Me limpio los dientes. |
| 8. I shave. | Me afeito. |
| 9. I dress. | Me visto. |
| 10. I comb my hair. | Me peino los cabellos. |
| 11. I eat breakfast. | Me desayuno. |
| 12. I read the newspaper. | Leo el periódico. |
| 13. I put on my overcoat. | Me pongo el abrigo. |
| 14. I say good-bye to my mother. | Me despido de mi madre. |
| 15. I go downstairs. | Bajo la escalera. |
| 16. I leave the house. | Salgo de la casa. |
| 17. I walk along the street. | Ando por la calle. |
| 18. I stop at the corner. | Me paro en la esquina. |
| 19. I wait for the street-car. | Espero el travía. |
| 20. I give up hope. | Pierdo la esperanza. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 21. I keep on walking. | Sigo andando. |
| 22. I get to school three minutes late. | Llego a la escuela con tres minutos de atraso. |
| 23. I enter the school. | Entro en la escuela. |
| 24. I take off my overcoat. | Me quito el abrigo. |
| 25. I leave it in my locker. | Lo dejo en mi armario. |
| 26. I go to my classes. | Voy a mis clases. |
| 27. I listen to my teachers. | Escucho a mis profesores. |
| 28. I ask questions. | Hago preguntas. |
| 29. I answer other questions. | Contesto otras preguntas. |
| 30. I take notes. | Saco apuntes. |
| 31. I recite. | Doy la lección. |
| 32. I turn in my homework. | Entrego el trabajo escrito. |
| 33. I buy War Bonds or Stamps. | Compro bonos o sellos de guerra. |
| 34. I pick up paper from the floor. | Recojo papel del suelo. |
| 35. I have a good time with my friends. | Me divierto con mis amigos. |
| 36. I eat lunch. | Tomo el almuerzo. |
| 37. I play basketball in the gym. | Juego al balón en el gimnasio. |
| 38. I fall down. | Me caigo. |
| 39. I hurt myself. | Me hago daño. |
| 40. I swim in the pool. | Nado en la piscina. |
| 41. I take a shower. | Me ducho. |
| 42. I go home. | Vuelvo a casa. |
| 43. I do the shopping. | Voy de compras. |
| 44. I carry the purchases to the kitchen. | Llevo las compras a la cocina. |
| 45. I do my homework. | Preparo la lección para mañana. |
| 46. I write a letter. | Escribo una carta. |
| 47. I mail it. | La echo al correo. |
| 48. I eat dinner. | Ceno. |
| 49. I telephone my girl-friend. | Telefoneo a mi novia. |
| 50. I promise to call for her. | Prometo ir a buscarla. |
| 51. I wear my new suit. | Llevo mi traje nuevo. |
| 52. I go with her to the Aragon. | La acompaño al Aragón. |
| 53. I dance with her. | Bailo con ella. |
| 54. I see that she is cuter than ever. | Veo que es más mona que nunca. |
| 55. I introduce my friends to her. | Le presento a mis amigos. |
| 56. I teach her some new steps. | Le enseño unos pasos nuevos. |
| 57. I go for a walk with her. | Me paseo con ella. |
| 58. I offer her a Coke. | Le ofrezco una Coca Cola. |
| 59. I stay with her until ten. | Me quedo con ella hasta las diez. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 60. | I am very happy. | Soy feliz. |
| 61. | I realize that I ought to go home. | Me doy cuenta de que debo volver a casa. |
| 62. | I take her home first. | La acompaño a su casa primero. |
| 63. | I thank her for the evening. | Le agradezco u compañía. |
| 64. | I feel very sorry not to see her again until the next day. | Siento mucho no volver a verla hasta el día siguiente. |
| 65. | I say to her, "Until to-morrow, kid." | Le digo,—Hasta mañana, chica. |
| 66. | I run to the street where the street-car passes. | Corro a la calle por donde pasa el tranvía. |
| 67. | I get on the car. | Subo al tranvía. |
| 68. | I pay the conductor eight cents. | Pago ocho centavos al cobrador. |
| 69. | I sit down. | Me siento. |
| 70. | I look out of the window. | Miro por la ventanilla. |
| 71. | I almost forget to get out. | Casi me olvido de bajar. |
| 72. | I come to. | Vuelvo en mí. |
| 73. | I get out of the car. | Bajo del tranvía. |
| 74. | I go up to my room. | Subo a mi cuarto. |
| 75. | I switch on the light. | Enciendo la luz. |
| 76. | I undress. | Me desnudo. |
| 77. | I remember that I still don't know my Spanish lesson. | Recuerdo que todavía no sé mi lección de español. |
| 78. | I look for my book. | Busco mi libro. |
| 79. | I find it. | Lo hallo. |
| 80. | I want to learn the lesson well. | Quiero aprender bien la lección. |
| 81. | I review it. | La repaso. |
| 82. | I learn it by heart. | La aprendo de memoria. |
| 83. | I am able to repeat it. | Puedo repetirla. |
| 84. | I am satisfied. | Estoy contento. |
| 85. | I wash my hands and face. | Me lavo las manos y la cara. |
| 86. | I set the alarm. | Pongo el despertador. |
| 87. | I drink a glass of water. | Bebo un vaso de agua. |
| 88. | I open the window. | Abro la ventana. |
| 89. | I turn out the light. | Apago la luz. |
| 90. | I go to bed. | Me acuesto. |
| 91. | I think of my friends. | Pienso en mis amigos. |
| 92. | I fall asleep. | Me duermo. |
| 93. | I dream of my Spanish teacher. | Sueño con mi profesor de español. |
| 94. | I am afraid. | Tengo miedo. |
| 95. | I wake up crying. | Me despierto llorando. |
| 96. | I realize where I am. | Me doy cuenta de donde estoy. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 97. I smile. | Me sonrío. |
| 98. I laugh. | Me río. |
| 99. I fall asleep again. | Me duermo otra vez. |

# CHORAL READING AND THE FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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Many improvements have been effected in recent years in methods for quicker and more complete acquisition of reading power in foreign languages. But aural mastery, depending as it does on long and frequent practice, becomes more and more difficult to achieve as classes grow increasingly large, and as the time devoted to the study of foreign languages becomes more limited.

We have experimented with choral reading in the teaching of spoken French at Hunter College High School and believe that this method might prove useful to teachers of foreign languages as a device for developing good diction and delivery.

*Brief history of choral reading.* Group recitation is a very old and well known form of expression, and in its more primitive aspects it is constantly practiced in the classroom. But as a means for oral interpretation of literature, although dating back to the Greek chorus, it was not revived until the beginning of the Twentieth Century. The French school of "Unanimistes" initiated this art; they composed poetry suitable to this mode of interpretation, and they made phonograph records of the renditions. But in France choral reading has remained more or less within the confines of a literary school, while in England and in the United States it has been adapted to a more popular and practical use. Well known, dependable works of literature have been arranged for group interpretation, thus freeing choral reading from its reputation of eccentricity. In the schools and universities of the English speaking world it is promising to become as common and as popular as choral singing.

*Aims and purposes.* With its French origin, choral speaking seemed to us particularly well suited to the teaching of the French language. We hoped it would prove helpful in bringing about:

1. Improvement in pronunciation,

2. Greater appreciation of the characteristic music of the French language.

We found it not only of educational and technical value in the classroom, but also of practical help in preparing French club programs; choral speaking has proved especially adaptable to radio broadcasting.

*Material used.* For beginners, the richest sources for simple selections are children's songs and the popular traditional songs of France. These are full of refrains that present excellent combinations of sounds, alliterations and assonances, which are good practice and at the same time as enjoyable in group recitation as in group singing. After the pupils have mastered the pronunciation and have acquired a sense of rhythm and intonation, it is wise, as a final step, to make them sing the song. Thus, while getting complete enjoyment out of it, they also are made to see how closely the tune often follows the tone pattern of the speaking voice.

Among the many anthologies of children's songs and rimes, one of the best as a source book for choral speaking material is E. Rolland's *Rimes de l'Enfance,* Tome XIV, LITTERATURES POPULAIRES (oral), Maisonneuve & Cie., Paris, 1881. For the popular traditional songs, Pierre Virgnault's *Anthologie de la Chanson Française* (words only), Librairie Delagrave, Paris, proves very complete. Many amusing refrains can also be selected from among the French Canadian songs.

For advanced students there is a wealth of material in *Les Fables de la Fontaine.* The fables afford fine possibilities for grouping as they generally combine dialogue with narration. Let us take as an example "Le Loup et l'Agneau." The class first learns the fable in its entirety; then the pupils are divided into three groups according to their voice quality. The light voices represent the Lamb, the heavy voices the Wolf, and the middle voices recite the narrative passages. After a while the two rôles are interpreted by individual pupils of special ability, and the narration is taken up by the rest of the class.

Another possibility for advanced groups is the provincial ballad, such as "La Submersion de la Ville d'Is." These traditional ballads seem to be specially created for just such group interpretation; they produce much more beautiful effects in this form than in individual recitation. Among the more modern adaptations of the ballad form are Alphonse Daudet's "La Mort du Dauphin" and "Le Sous-Préfet aux Champs" (*Lettres de mon Moulin*), which lend themselves to a number of arrangements; and there is ample choice in Paul Fort's innumerable volumes of *Ballades Françaises,* some of which, such as "Le bonheur est dans le pré," have such variety that after many days of repetition pupils do not tire of them.

Some of the poetry of the Nineteenth Century can also be used; Victor Hugo's "Djinns" and Leconte de Lisle's "Les Elfes" are excellent material. In choosing very lyrical verse care must be taken to select a poem expressing a mood rather than a very personal sentiment. For instance, of Verlaine's two lyrical poems "Chanson d'Automne" and "Le Ciel pardessus le Toit," the first is possible material though personal, while the latter would not be appropriate because the feeling it conveys could not be shared by a whole group.

*Procedure.* We shall discuss the procedure which we followed in preparing a radio performance of choral recitations. This method can, of course, be simplified for more informal occasions.

The voices were divided according to their quality: light, medium, and heavy. After a general reading and explanation of the selection, we concentrated on the pronunciation. Words containing difficult sounds were taken out of the text and practiced singly. Sometimes individual words would be well pronounced, but be found difficult in certain situations; such phrases would be repeated slowly, then in natural tempo. When practicing for pronunciation alone it is better to take detached groups of words rather than to repeat the entire poem over and over again; for when repeating for the sole purpose of pronunciation there is a tendency to forget the meaning of the selection and to develop the habit of sing-song recitation.

When the technical difficulties had been overcome we took the poem as a whole; the interpretation was set, the intonation given to the pupils and the rhythm marked out. For a while the group practiced as a whole; later, the groups of voices were assigned different parts of the selection according to the varying moods of the passage or according to the various characters that appeared. Certain lines best suited to a single voice were given to individuals in the group. This lent variety and flexibility to the rendition.

*Results noted.* It would appear at first sight that, though group practice might be expedient it could not hope to achieve the results obtained through individual attention. But it has been our happy experience to discover that high school children are sometimes more careful in group participation than in individual work. If they are made to realize that the poem they are to interpret is a unit that must be as clear as when recited by one individual, and that it must at the same time have the richness to which each one in the group contributes, they are more likely to make an effort at accuracy than if they alone were to suffer for their personal mistakes. After a while they begin to feel that one slip by anyone will blur the crystal clearness of the whole.

There was the case of a blasé upper senior who could not pronounce a French "r." When this was first pointed out to her, she shrugged her shoulders and announced that one bad "r" would not be noticed. But soon she became so conscious of her mispronunciation that, fearing to spoil the general effect, she refrained of her own accord from reciting any of the words containing "r" until she had mastered the sound.

It was also surprising to note how violently pupils protested when wrongly accused of mispronunciation, as in contrast with the attitude of indifference that correction and criticism of individual pupils sometimes encounters.

Choral speaking proves also of benefit to the pupil who, though diligent and accurate in written work, is timid about pronouncing a "foreign" language, afraid to be laughed at. In group work this fear is banished, and the timid pupils get practice without feeling constant embarrassment.

Another result noticed is the great improvement in articulation. Teachers of French go to great lengths to explain to their pupils that French is a language which must be very clearly articulated. Two of the most common errors of pronunciation made by Americans in speaking French are (1) slurring over certain syllables, and (2) failure to produce clean-cut sounds. To correct this it is necessary to exercise the organs of speech, which in English are much more relaxed. But in choral delivery even in English the movements of the lips, tongue, and jaw must be exaggerated to achieve distinctness. The doubly great precision which students of French learn through group speaking has a carry-over into their individual speaking of the language.

Perhaps the greatest benefit that pupils studying foreign languages derive from choral speaking is the closer acquaintance they develop with the pattern of the language. It is one thing to be told that the stress comes on the last syllable of a French word and quite another to be carried into this regular beat, with a whole group of others, under the constant control of a leader. Even those not participating learn a great deal by listening to a whole orchestra of voices following this one pattern. Pupils are often told that the French speech tune has many more ups and downs than English. But an individual pupil often feels ridiculous when told to imitate the teacher's inflections. And even if he is willing to imitate he feels that he is exaggerating. In group work, however, pupils prove much more pliable and ready to follow the vocal rise and fall that the teacher indicates.

If careful listening and close imitation are two essentials in learning to speak, choral reading, in giving this training, proves to be an effective aid in the teaching of foreign languages.

# 8 : TEACHING THE FOREIGN CIVILIZATION: REALIA AND AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

## THE CULTURAL PHASE OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Although there is nothing new about teaching pupils some facts about the foreign people whose language they are learning, the systematic and organized presentation of Kulturkunde or Civilization in connection with modern language instruction is of recent development. The Modern Language Study brought out the fact that the texts most widely used at present in French and Spanish really contained extremely little cultural information and that even this little consisted in the main of a mere "mention."

The earliest attempt to overcome this deficiency in foreign language teaching, resulted in the presentation of numerous "facts." These were readily memorized by the pupil and easily tested through completion or true-false tests. The pupil learned the names of ten cities and what each was famous for, ten authors and a work of each, etc. In German he matched Heine with Lorelei; in French he wrote Rouget de Lisle after "Marseillaise"; in Spanish he identified *picador,* Cervantes and *puchero.* This was unfortunate, for it emphasized the acquisition of factual knowledge, was entirely unrelated to the pupil's life, and gave him nothing to do. It was mere book knowledge learned by rote. Incidentally, little time was devoted to this instruction, for it was considered unimportant.

And yet this phase of language teaching is essentially the most important. In the final analysis we do not teach foreign languages so that pupils may order a meal in French or write a composition in German or use the subjunctive correctly in Spanish, but rather to introduce them, in the short time at our disposal, to some of the more important characteristics of the foreign civilization. In Europe this has always been recognized; in Continental secondary schools approximately half the time is devoted to required language studies. No matter what one's philosophy of education is, the premise must be accepted that all learning is based on previous experience and that the record of this experience is stored up in language. Language is not only the medium of communication and expression; it also preserves the cultural heritage of the race. It is the most important part of our learning: there can be none without it. As Director L. A. Wilkins so well expresses it: "The study and perfection of language is . . . the very basis of all education, of all progress, of all civilization. Language study is the core of humanism, of humanistic education."

The listing of lifeless and unrelated facts certainly is far removed from genuine humanism. Furthermore, no enumeration of facts, however great, will produce a complete, vivid, and coherent picture of the foreign civilization.

A long step has been taken forward by the introduction of a number of texts attempting to portray foreign life interestingly and accurately. Some of these are collections in the foreign language, of a series of articles on the chief phases of the nation's life and history. Others consist of brief extracts from the works of modern authors and attempt to present foreign thought in this way. A more recent development has been the inclusion, even in beginners' books of a series of articles in English on the geography, history and cultural life of the foreign country.

The important factor, however, is the teacher. He must be thoroughly imbued with a knowledge of the foreign land; in the case of the ideally prepared teacher, this knowledge will be vivified by travel abroad. An instructor who has had this preparation ought to be able to give the pupils a sympathetic and accurate picture of the foreign country. The teaching will not consist of the memorizing of unrelated facts but rather the presentation of opportunities for vicarious, enriching experiences.

Under the direction of Mr. Wilkins, a committee of foreign language experts has prepared a detailed syllabus showing the unlimited possibilities for the resourceful and enthusiastic teacher and for the enterprising pupil. As a basic principle pupil activity should be maintained and utilized throughout. How can this be accomplished? The proposed syllabus, which is largely the work of Director Wilkins, suggests: "This may be done by training pupils to collect and organize illustrative material, to prepare scrap-books, models and collections, to develop projects planned by the class and the teacher, to read books in English on the foreign land, to consult books of reference and to write in good English brief and simple reports on their reading; by having them visit ships, museums, libraries, churches, stores and shops, cultural centers, foreign quarters, concerts and the opera; by having them report upon films and radio programs given in the foreign language. In a word, while the teacher should always guide and direct, the initiative and active participation of the pupils should be stimulated as much as possible."

As desirable outcomes of this instruction this syllabus gives: the development of skill in collecting and organizing illustrative material, in making proper use of library facilities and reference works, in preparing oral and written reports, in exercising powers of observation; the growth in appreciation of the beauties of art, music and literature; the strengthening of the ideals of fairness, tolerance and democracy. In short, civilization, if properly taught, "establishes foreign language work as a most significant and vivid social science."

The teaching of civilization may, of course, be done directly, in special periods, or indirectly in connection with the language teaching itself. Incidental teaching, if skilfully done, is probably the more effective, for it does not separate the linguistic from the cultural, and permits the latter to arise from the reading. If a whole period is devoted to a specific topic, the tendency is to use only English; if the topic arises out of the reading, it is more natural to use the foreign language. The skilful teacher will adjust herself to her class, her text and her syllabus, as to quantity and method. Too much is as bad as too little, and a lack of genuine enthusiasm and interest on the part of the teacher will spoil everything. The trivial should be avoided, but better the trivial taught inspiringly than the sublime presented boringly. A pupil may learn to love music through an infectious presentation of "Zwei Herzen im ¾ Takt," whereas he may be filled with a lasting hatred of music and Wagner by a dull exposition of "Tannhaeuser."

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## SUGGESTED METHODS AND PROCEDURES FOR USE IN TEACHING THE CIVILIZATION OF THE FOREIGN COUNTRY

[From *Auxiliary Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages,* Foreign Civilization and Visual-Aural Aids, N. Y. C. Board of Education, 1937, pp. 9–13.
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1. *The aim in teaching civilization.* The aim to be achieved in teaching "Civilization" is not merely the acquisition of factual knowledge. Facts should provide only the material for such instruction. Facts have their place, but a mere factual outline is apt to become lifeless and unin-

teresting. The teacher must clothe the bare outline with the living semblance of the foreign people, picturing vividly their daily life, their environment and their reactions thereto, their way of being, as affected by their physical surroundings, their history, their traditions, their aspirations and ideals. The aim should be to show how a Frenchman, a German, an Italian or a Spaniard meets a situation which is common to all mankind; how he is what he is as the result of the natural resources and the inherited ideas and ideals of his country.

2. *Preparation and attitude of the teacher.* To this end, the teacher should be thoroughly imbued with a knowledge of the life of the foreigner, deriving this knowledge in part from study of the geography, history, national aspirations, folklore, literary and artistic accomplishments and trends of the foreign land. There are countless sources upon which to draw for the development of a keen and sympathetic insight into the spirit and life of the foreigner, and for conditioning the instructor as an effective interpreter thereof. This study and reading should, in the case of the ideally prepared teacher, be vivified and illuminated by travel and residence abroad. Nothing can serve more effectively to motivate the teaching of foreign civilization than such travel and residence. The teacher who is prepared by study and travel should be able to give pupils a sympathetic and accurate picture of the foreign country, *without unduly glorifying the foreign civilization.*

3. *Stress on the unique.* In the presentation of material, the aim should constantly be to select the striking, the different, the unique, the things which show in arresting fashion how the foreigner has met a given situation, has solved a given problem, has interpreted and met a need in certain circumstances. For instance, in the tilling of the soil, instruments have been developed in each of the foreign lands which correspond to the needs as well as the traditions of that sector of the world. Or regional dress may often be shown to be the result of both climatic conditions and inherited ideals. Similarly, types of dwellings represent the ingenuity of the inhabitants in adapting construction to geographic, economic and climatic conditions as well as to traditional forms. Such things, to a student reared in so new and untraditional a land as the United States, have strong appeal as being picturesque or romantic, and supply a basis of constant interest.

4. *Pupil activity as a basic principle.* Pupil interest should be maintained and utilized through pupil activity. This may be done by training pupils to collect and organize illustrative material, to prepare scrapbooks, models and collections, to develop projects planned by the class and the teacher, to read books in English on the foreign land, to consult books of reference and to write in good English brief and simple reports on their

reading; by having them visit ships, museums, libraries, churches, stores and shops, cultural centers, foreign quarters, concerts and the opera; by having them report upon films and radio programs given in the foreign language. In a word, while the teacher should always guide and direct, the initiative and active participation of the pupils should be stimulated as much as possible.

5. *Desirable outcomes of this instruction.* The above mentioned pupil activities should result in acquiring not only facts, but in the development of certain skills, appreciations and ideals. Only such phases of the foreign civilization should be emphasized as are within the range of the pupil's interests and comprehension. The various projects and activities should develop skill in collecting and organizing illustrative material, in making proper use of library facilities and reference works, in preparing oral and written reports, in exercising powers of observation during visits to museums, exhibitions, and so on. Certainly skill in the use of written and spoken English and in the use of the foreign language should be increased. The pupil's contact with various phases of the foreign civilization should help him to appreciate the beauties of art, music, and literature in general, and, in particular, the achievements in these fields by the people whose language he is studying. Skillful correlation with other departments of the school should aid considerably in accomplishing these objectives, and in emphasizing the close interrelation of human endeavor in all parts of the world. This should in turn result in good taste, a sense of fairness, tolerance toward other peoples and a strengthening of the democratic ideals of our own country. In short, this type of instruction in civilization establishes foreign languages as a most significant and vivid social science.

6. *Correlation with other departments.* Correlation with other departments should be actively sought in connection with the Civilization program in foreign languages. The aid of departments of social sciences, music, English and art should especially be sought. Books read, topics investigated, and reports made by pupils often take them into fields covered in at least a general way by these departments. Correlation with the art department might, for instance, be obtained for the student who either seeks information about a masterpiece of painting or regional costumes of the foreign country, or is attempting to sketch a map or design a costume. The cooperation of the health education department might be sought in teaching pupils typical dances of the foreign country. For a written report by a pupil on any Civilization project in which he is engaged, credit might well be given by allied departments.

7. *Visual and aural instruction.* Much use should be made of material that appeals to the eye and the ear. Both silent and spoken

travelogue films, photographs, postcard views, maps, charts, stereopticon slides, posters, travel folders, tickets of all kinds, time-tables, menus, hotel bills, catalogues, models, dolls and mannikins dressed in regional costumes, reproductions of art masterpieces, stamps, coins, magazines, children's books and similar realia are highly pertinent. Such things, opportunely exhibited and studied, create vivid and lasting visual impressions and reinforce knowledge otherwise acquired.

Similarly, aural impressions may be conveyed through phonograph records of the speech of natives of the foreign land, of folk songs, of portions of foreign language operas and operettas, and of recited poems, all of which have some place in the development of the topics outlined. Of special merit are films spoken in the foreign tongue. Such films have, of course, double value in that they appeal to both the eye and the ear.

In an effort to make known the most suitable and the more accessible material for visual and aural instruction, a section of this syllabus contains, for each language, lists of material of this nature with indication of where it may be obtained.

Each modern language department should build up gradually a collection of visual and aural material to be used in connection with the teaching of Civilization.

8. *Testing*. Testing the assimilation of instruction in Civilization may take the form of "short answer" tests (multiple choice, completion, and the like) and of the "essay" type. Too much stress or sole reliance upon the former is undesirable. The essay type should constitute at least 50 per cent of the testing procedure, for in this way only can an idea be obtained of how adequate, connected and well-rounded is the pupil's knowledge on a given topic.

9. *When civilization material may be taught*. Civilization material may be taught in connection with: (1) Allusions and references found in the textbooks used; (2) Supplementary reading; (3) Projects and realia; (4) Current events.

Not more than one-fifth and not less than one-tenth of the class time should be devoted to the program in Civilization.

* * * * *

By timeliness of a topic is meant coincidence with mention in the reading text, with current events, or with significant holidays. For that reason, no special order of topics need be followed. At the same time each modern language department should plan an orderly and progressive presentation of the topics selected.

# THE FUNCTIONS OF REALIA

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[From *MLJ*, XXX, 8, Dec. 1946, 561–4.]

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In order to make intelligent and purposeful use of realia, it is necessary, even at the risk of being obvious, to re-define the term and to indicate its various functions. The term as used in linguistic pedagogy has a twofold significance. In its narrower sense it denotes "real things," generally of a physical character. In this sense it would more or less correspond to the more common pedagogical term "visual-aural aids," e.g., coins, stamps, models, pictures, maps, etc. In its broader sense realia denotes the traits, manners, customs, institutions, etc. of a people whose language is being studied. In this meaning it would coincide with the terms "foreign civilization" or "culture," e.g. the psychological and social complex characterizing an ethnic unit as conditioned by history, geography and climate, and expressed in its art, folklore, music, philosophy and social and political ideals. In the field of Germanics the term *Kulturkunde* and, more specifically, *Deutschkunde* would apply to this broader sense. Realia in its limited sense of visual-aural aids serves as a bridge to the broader concept of foreign civilization and culture.

Perhaps the broadest and most common use of realia is to provide a proper learning environment. The psychological necessity for this use is implied in the following statement regarding the psychology of language learning. "From the organismic standpoint, any form of language instruction is necessarily lowered in effectiveness whenever it occurs outside the cultural setting in which that language is normally employed. . . . The absence of the natural context for most foreign-language study is a severe handicap and is functionally equal to deprivation of certain major senses or to a lowering of one's normal level of brightness."[1] The value of realia in providing this "cultural setting" is self-evident.

Other functions of realia in foreign-language instruction will naturally vary according to the objectives of such instruction, the ability and initiative of the teacher and the particular educational environment. If the objective is merely the immediate one of attaining certain linguistic skills, the use of realia will be strictly confined to visual-aural aids designed for linguistic training. Instruction will be exclusively in the foreign language and the realia will be treated merely as a supplement to textual material. Certain problems, as yet unsolved, arise when this objective is posited. There are very few realia specifically designed for this purpose. Furthermore, if the foreign language is to be the medium of instruction, only realia in the narrower sense can be employed in the elementary stages of instruction.

If the objective is to teach the foreign civilization as an adjunct to foreign-language instruction, the possibilities for the use of realia are vastly increased. Discussions and supplementary readings in English generally accompany this objective. Here, too, unsolved problems confront the language teacher. There is the problem of time budgeting. Since the instruction is mostly in English, valuable time must be taken from the already limited program of instruction in the foreign language. This objection would seem to apply to the present New York City "Auxiliary Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages,"[2] which deals with foreign civilization and visual-aural aids, and which is rather unrealistic as to time scheduling. The syllabus states that "Not more than one-fifth and not less than one-tenth of the class time should be devoted to the program in civilization" (p. 12). It is obviously impossible to do justice to the exhaustive and ambitious program of the syllabus in that space of time. The "Auxiliary Syllabus" is really a complete and independent course in foreign civilization, written in English. What is needed is an integrated body of cultural material arising naturally out of the actual textbooks used in the various foreign-language classes.

The use of realia achieves perhaps its greatest significance in the integrated program of foreign-language teaching on a cultural basis, as advocated by Kaulfers and others.[3] This program starts from the premise that foreign-language teaching should be integrated with the general objectives of education; that it should correspond to the "life needs" of the pupil; that it should be conceived in terms of "outcomes" rather than objectives, and hence should be designed to leave a functional residue of social attitudes and linguistic and cultural facts even after a two-year course. The integrated program emphasizes the inter-influences of the foreign civilization and our own. It makes extensive use of realia, activities and projects in a vitally motivated and organic process of learning the foreign language.

To sum up, the functions of realia are (a) to provide a cultural setting for the foreign language; (b) to aid directly in the attainment of linguistic skills; (c) to aid in the teaching of foreign culture and civilization; (d) to provide materials for an integrated program of foreign-language teaching on a cultural basis. Other ancillary functions not discussed in detail above are (e) to stimulate and maintain interest in the study of the foreign language; (f) to provide materials for extra-curcular activities; (g) to provide materials for activities and projects for younger pupils and those of lower linguistic ability.

No discussion of the functions of realia would be complete without a word of comment upon the ultimate objective of foreign-language teaching which justifies the teaching of foreign civilization and culture. Most statements of this objective include terms such as "understanding, sympathy and tolerance" in reference to the foreign people whose language is being studied. The events leading up to the past war and its sorry aftermath have again demonstrated that purely unilateral efforts to attain understanding, sympathy and tolerance are futile and even self-destructive. It is to be hoped that the UNESCO may provide the foundations for a truly international cultural program that will restore the validity of this ultimate objective in the teaching of foreign civilization and culture.

## NOTES

1. Hartmann, G. W., *Educational Psychology,* American Book Co., N. Y., 1941, p. 472.
2. Board of Education, N. Y., 1937.
3. Cf. Kaulfers, W. V., *Modern Languages for Modern Schools,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y., 1942.

## SUPPLEMENTARY AIDS IN THE A.S.T.P.

[From *A Survey of Language Classes in the A.S.T.P.,* Commission on Trends in Education, Modern Language Association of America, N. Y., 1944, pp. 22–25.]

In addition to the many new procedures adopted in class-room instruction, the AST language program was supplemented, to an extent which varied according to local facilities, by the use of mechanical apparatus and by the promotion of extra-curricular activities carried on in the foreign languages. These activities were perhaps no more intensely developed than in many colleges where, before the war, students had the advantages of language houses, language tables, language clubs, or the like. On the other hand, mechanical devices seem to have been put to wider use in the program than formerly, and therefore merit some description as they were observed in operation.

By far the most extensively used apparatus was the phonograph, for both listening and recording. Of these two procedures, listening to foreign language records was the more prevalent, because of the accessibility of commercially produced sets of records, available in any language desired, and usable with any phonograph. In many cases, such sets were individually owned by trainees and were utilized on a voluntary basis outside of class; in some cases listening was also done in class as a phase of routine instruction in pronunciation. Despite this use of commercial records, there was general agreement on the part of both instructors and students that records of this type were unsatisfactory for instructional purposes, especially in view of the lack of topical or textual connection between them and other course materials. More interesting in content, on the one hand, are transcriptions of short-wave broadcasts, March of Time recordings, or the like, which were used in one or two instances; more promising instructionally, on the other hand, are the recently devised G. I. records, some of which provide pauses, during which the student can repeat immediately the phrases spoken on the records. Such a device carries the student beyond mere passive listening, a rôle which, although it was considered to have some value when practised outside of class or during supervised study periods, was conceded to have little place in the classroom, where it is difficult to see the advantage which a record holds over the voice of a native speaker present in the room.

In the several institutions where phonographic equipment included a recording machine, useful and stimulating work was accomplished. Drill-masters often cut their own records containing lesson materials used from day to day; these materials were then available for repeated aural review, either optional or obligatory. In one institution, several hundred trainees listened from three to four hours a week, *en masse*, to recordings of course materials in an Oriental language, with corresponding romanized texts before their eyes. In other cases, native drill-masters had recorded supplementary passages for paraphrase or summarization by the students.

An even more effective process was that of recording by the student himself. Individual trainees made records of their own speech in the foreign language, at intervals ranging from once per term to every two weeks, and, in at least one instance, the material recorded consisted of dialogues between student and drill-master, prepared the first time, unrehearsed thereafter. The unique experience of hearing one's own voice as others hear it can be so effectively exploited for diagnosis of speech faults that improvement in pronunciation is often measurable. To achieve maximum effectiveness, however, first-class acoustical conditions, and high-grade recording machines and disks are indispensable. Excellent for remedial purposes is a magnetic tape recorder, which was in use in at least a half-dozen units. This apparatus, capable of immediately reproducing, on magnetized tape, short utterances, which can as quickly be erased, provides an opportunity for speedy analysis and offers advantages over the more cumbersome process of disk-cutting. While the utility of such devices cannot be denied, enthusiasm for technology has perhaps been carried a step too far in the use of the cathode-ray oscilloscope, which, despite its impressive label, is incapable of demonstrating more than one sound at a time. Its place would seem to be in the research laboratory rather than the elementary language classroom.

Of the radio and telephone, little use was observed. In one instance certain students, weak on comprehension, were periodically required as an exercise to take foreign language messages over the telephone; but in no observed case was the vast resource of foreign language broadcasts, accessible over short-wave radio, being utilized.

In addition to phonographic and allied devices, a widely used aid was the foreign language moving picture, mainly in the form of commercial films. Occasionally, OWI or War Department propaganda releases were accessible. Despite the wide use of commercial films, there was rather general dissatisfaction with those available for showing at the units; many of these films were acoustically defective, so that comprehension was difficult. Consequently, there was considerable feeling that, from the point of view of instruction, returns from these poor-grade, antiquated movies were very slight, and little effort was therefore made to integrate their use with the teaching program. In most cases such films were shown outside of contact hours, and were frankly regarded as extra-curricular, although often they served as incidental topics of discussion in subsequent drill sessions. Exceptional, though certainly commendable, was the procedure of one enterprising instructor who provided the spectators with synopses in advance, and at twenty-minute intervals had the film stopped for five minutes to permit questions. The next day's drill session was devoted to discussion of the film, and if it seemed advisable the showing was repeated once or even twice. One other highly successful adaptation of talkies to drill work was observed in an institution where excellent 35 mm. films were first shown in the afternoon, and, after a drill session in which the film provided the subject of conversation, a second showing was held in the evening. In general, it was agreed that movies were theoretically a useful aid, but only in so far as good ones could be obtained and profitably integrated with the program. Furthermore, they required optimum acoustical and technical conditions for showing if satisfactory results were to be attained.

As regards wholly extra-curricular activities in the foreign language, a wide variety of practices was observed. Students often were privileged to hear visiting lecturers speaking foreign tongues, and in some cases much energy was devoted to arranging lecture programs for the special benefit of the language trainees. Nearly everywhere informal *soirées* were held in the homes of staff members or of local residents who spoke the language. In communities where national groups had active clubs or organizations (such as the Alliance Française or the Deutscher Verein), appropriate contacts were made and the trainees were included in many of their activities. In many cities, it was possible to take students to foreign language restaurants, cinemas, and church services. Where the college had civilian student language clubs, the Army trainees were invited to participate in the meetings and were encouraged to present dramatic skits. The staging of original playlets was widespread among trainee groups, and in a few units more ambitious dramatic presentations were undertaken with outstanding success. In several institutions, students edited their own monthly newspapers, in mimeographed form, as for example the *G. I. Allerlei* or *Il Pugnolo.* In many units, singing was especially popular, and at some colleges each language group devoted a special hour once a week to an organized singing session, at which songs were learned by heart and where the eventual performance, especially in Russian, was most impressive.

There were several attempts to establish "language tables"; that is, dining tables where only the foreign language was used. These attempts met with varying success: considerable in a group where the teaching staff attended several luncheons per week, but little where attendance was optional or where there was no supervision. In a number of units, it was possible actually to quarter the trainees by language groups, an arrangement which inevitably stimulated additional use of the language.

In general, all such extra-curricular activities as are described above were felt to have been amply jutsified, by reason of their function as normal outlets for self-expression in the foreign tongue, and their close approach to the all-important vital experience of "living the language," unequalled in even the most cleverly stimulated classroom exercises of the traditional sort.

# ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL IN CONVERSATION CLASSES

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[From *MLJ*, XXX, 2, Feb. 1946, 84–88.]

With the present emphasis on a speaking knowledge of languages there has also spread the erroneous idea that speaking can be taught only by speaking. Of course, there can be no question about the starting of a conversation course. In the beginning, the teacher must establish a correct pronunciation and intonation, and that he can do best by his own practical example and the students' close imitation of it. Later on imitation of model conversations and memorizing of speech patterns is an excellent practice, as has been demonstrated by C. R. Goedsche's most valuable conversation manuals (*Sag's auf deutsch!*, F. S. Crofts & Co., 1943. *Wie geht's?* 1938). Soon dramatization first of simple and then of more complicated practical situations can be introduced, and the course can go along on an oral basis for quite some time.

But none of the experienced conversation teachers has suggested a reliance on orally presented materials only. Otherwise we would have none of the recently published conversation books. We may place them into the students' hands rather late; we may at first avoid conventional spelling altogether, but sooner or later visual aids to learning will have to be introduced, and even conventional spelling cannot be avoided all the time. After all, no normal class consists of auditory types of students exclusively or even preponderantly. The average pupil learns through all his senses, by hearing, by seeing, by muscular activity, and his visual faculties are even slightly more pronounced than his others.[1] Every sensible pedagogy therefore addresses its efforts to the pupil as a whole, with a distinct appeal to his visual powers.

In addition, language knowledge is never confined to only one mental faculty. Just as little as we can teach reading ability in complete isolation, can we teach speaking ability alone without introducing at some time reading, writing, and even translating. All the purely oral approaches to conversation teaching exhaust themselves naturally. Imitation of model sentences can develop into a monotonous grind, and dramatics cannot be applied, as soon as the conversation turns to less immediate topics. Still, on the whole these approaches are vastly to be preferred to the digestion of printed materials by the game of questions and answers or by oral reports and to the doubtful practice of translating English conversations. Such exercises should of course be used only sparingly. Yet many teachers will tend to employ them in order to avoid monotony in the more advanced stages of the course. But are they really the only way out?

My feeling is that the use of pictures in conversation courses has not yet been sufficiently exploited. It is true that in recent years some attention has been given to pictures in beginning grammars, in composition books, and even in conversation manuals. But too many teachers still look upon them primarily as illustrations or as decorations conceived to relieve the monotony of drill work. The usefulness of pictures for teaching the foreign culture is generally recognized, but their employment for our primary purpose of teaching language has been discussed or even suggested only by a few progressive teachers.[2] It is in order to add renewed weight to their recommendations, that this article has ventured to demonstrate the many-sided adaptability of pictures to the teaching of conversation.

### I. *The Picture as Vocabulary Builder*
### (*The Descriptive Picture*)

It is generally conceded that the most successful language teaching is done by the nursery. And in the nursery we find illustrated Mother Goose books, animal picture books, and picture lottos. All of them can also be introduced in elementary conversation courses, and very effectively too. Professor Holzmann in a recent article in the *Modern Language Journal*[3] has described a conversation course in which he started with the pictures found in Thora Goldschmidt's *Bildertafeln für den Unterricht im Deutschen* (Hirt, Leipzig, 1931) and later on employed wall pictures of the series *Tableaux Auxiliaires Delmas*.[4] The principle here is the same as the one followed in the nursery. The adolescent language student, just like the baby, learns to associate pictures and sounds and thus effectively aids his memory by visual devices.

A similar principle, but for different purposes, has been adopted by the picture dictionaries like *Bilder-Duden*,[5] *Der Sprach-Brockhaus* (Leipzig, A. Brockhaus, 1935), A. Pinloche's *Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache* (Paris: Larousse, 1922). Here illustrations as they are found in most encyclopedias and in many language dictionaries (like Webster's or Larousse's) are consistently applied to the explanation and the finding of new words. You no longer thumb for *railroad, station, ticket, conductor* in the *Bilder-Duden*, but you simply look up the picture of a railroad station, and on the accompanying legend you find all the words necessary to describe its details. You thus keep enlarging your vocabulary easily, and you do it not by learning detached words. You add instead related concepts and associations to the ones you already possess, and the appeal is directly to your visual as well as to your abstract memory. The asses' bridge of translations is avoided.

It is possible to acquire in this way the meaning of many foreign nouns, adjectives, and even verbs. But the method has also its limitations. It is good and commendable as long as the pictures represent objects, details of objects, and living beings connected with those objects. On the other hand, ideas such as "freedom," "language," "immortality," can hardly be taught by pictures. And in addition, purely descriptive pictures cannot cover all the possible practical situations. As the course advances, their yield may become distinctly meager. A picture lotto card showing an umbrella will hardly allow more than answers to questions like: What is it? What is its color, size, form? Out of what material is it made? When and where is it used? By whom is it used? A scenic picture will bring out more. For instance, Paul R. Pope in his excellent *Writing and Speaking German* (Henry Holt & Co., 1925) has been able without extra effort to build up quite a composition on a detailed picture of a barnyard. But there are less skillful teachers than he, and a conversation about a descriptive picture in their hands might easily deteriorate into a number of lifeless statements as: "To the right is the pump, to the left is the chicken-coop. Before the house lies a dog. Behind the house there are fields. Below on the ground one sees a flock of geese. Above in the air there flies a stork." Of course, even such statements have their use in the beginning. But with the students advancing beyond the elementary stage, mere descriptions become a matter of course, and simple descriptive pictures no longer suffice. The stage is set for the introduction of the action-picture.

### II. *The Picture as Guide for Conversation*
### (*The Action Picture*)

"Action Picture" is perhaps a misnomer. An individual picture may indeed suggest an action, but it can never adequately represent it. Take Leutze's famous painting *Washington Crossing the Delaware* or Menzel's *Eisenwalzwerk* or Turner's *Fighting Téméraire*. In all these cases actions are suggested and in conversations about the pictures can be described. But for this a certain imagination is required, and you cannot always count upon imaginative students.

So it is better to present to the class a number of pictures, a sequence that suggests an action more obviously. Comic strips will frequently do, especially if they are not accompanied by too many words. The Scandinavian and German *Adamson* series, which in this country has become the *Silent Sam* series, is excellent for our purposes, and it has been a happy idea of Werner Neuse to present comic strips by Rea Irvin, Otto Soglow, Carl Rose, Gardner Rea, and Frueh for conversation and composition exercises in his text *Vom Bild zum Wort* (J. B. Lippincott Co., 1938). The same author has also used drawings by Wilhelm Busch (without his verses), which of course have a more authentic foreign flavor than those by our American artists.

Other possibilities readily suggest themselves: Present to your students a series of snapshots taken from the air and have them describe a aeroplane trip. Give to them illustrated children's books like the French *Babar* series, like the German *Struwwelpeter,* or like Walt Disney's *Three Little Pigs* and have them describe the actions in their own words.

And finally: why not use a simple short movie once in a while? Some of the old-fashioned silent movies would do very well, and even sound pictures with not too much sound might be tried now and then. The only possible objection I see to their use is that they require too much preparation and machinery. They might also detract the students' attention. But this need not be so, if the films selected are short and of the right kind. They might even convey cultural atmosphere and information that can otherwise be given only with difficulty in a conversation course. Pictures of proper length also would not take away too much valuable class time.

### III. *The Picture as Purveyor of Topics* (*The Associative Picture*)

With the students' progress in conversation, there arrives a time when even the action picture is no longer of considerable help. The student now has made his own the most important vocabulary of an everyday character, he has mastered the use of the verbs in all their various forms and tenses, he has acquired a considerable number of idioms for active use, and he is ready for less guided and more spontaneous talking. Still, we cannot entirely let him loose on his own or let him talk in a vacuum. We have to provide topics and see to it that the student not merely repeats the phrases that he has learned, but also applies them to various changing situations and, if possible, acquires some new words and idioms. Here, too, pictures may provide a great help, but they must be different from the ones we have discussed so far. Instead of descriptive pictures and action pictures we now need associative pictures. They will supply the student with certain keys and general directives, while now he can safely be trusted to follow them through and to fill in the details.

Associative pictures can be of various kinds. We might give the student a reproduction of a foreign railroad ticket and ask him to tell us where it was bought and what trip it was used for. We might give him a reproduction of a telegram form and ask him to fill it in and send it off. A. F. J. Zieglschmid in his conversation book *Wir sprechen Deutsch* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934) has made some use of such pictorial incentives. Or we might hand to the student a map of a mountain hike and ask him to tell us about it. Another good scheme is the use of outline pictures which allow much play of the imagination. C. R. Goedsche has supplied them in his two conversation books. And finally, why not let the student occasionally play detective and provide him with cues for a sensational story which he may piece togther from tell-tale prints and traces? Anything that makes him talk and talk more fluently should be allowed in a conversation class.

This article should not only have demonstrated the general usefulness of pictures in conversation courses. Our discussion has also led to definite suggestions for their grading and their classification. But we have by no means exhausted the pedagogical and instructional problems connected with the employment of pictures. Are individual pictures or wall charts preferable? Should we use standardized or rather localized and nationalized pictures? Should we rely on photographs, or on reproductions of paintings and other artistic productions, or should we have our pictures drawn to order? All these questions require a detailed discussion, and there exists no simple, direct answer to any of them. There is likewise still enough room for practical experimenting, if truly adaptable and tried-out pictorial aids are to be looked for as a result. But that ought not to keep us from starting. For even a small collection of pictures will much facilitate the planning of conversation classes and will represent an effective antidote against the deadly monotony and psychological ineffectiveness of speaking instruction based only on spoken and printed material to the exclusion of the most helpful teaching aid of all: the illustration.

## NOTES

1. Cf. Peter Hagboldt, *Language Learning* (University of Chicago Press, 1935), 9, 41, 42.

2. "According to my idea pictures are an integral part of the class room work." (Lillian L. Stroebe, "The Use of Pictures as Illustrative Material in Modern Language Teaching," *Education,* XLIII, 1922–23, 363). Cf. also the same author's description of her own conversation courses in *The Teaching of German at Vassar College* ("Bulletin of Vassar College," March 1944), 10: "In this course as well as in others a great deal of illustrative material is used." See also Otto Koischwitz,

*Selection and Application of Illustrative Material in Foreign Language Classes* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

3. Cf. Albert W. Holzmann, "A Method of Teaching German Conversation," *The Modern Language Journal,* XXVII (No. 6, October 1943), 413–418.

4. This experienced teacher also made good use of two large pictures published by J. M. Dent and Sons of London. Of course, the wall charts published by D. C. Heath & Co. also lend themselves to conversation practice.

5. *Der Grosze Duden, Bilderbuch der deutschen Sprache,* herausgegeben von Otto Basler (Leipzig, 1935). See also its foreign adaptations *Duden Français* and *The English Duden* (both 1936). There is now available an American edition of the pictorial *Duden* in five languages, manufactured under a permit by the Alien Property Custodian (Frederick Ungar Publishing Company, New York, 1943). Cf. also the excellent pictures in Emil L. Jordan's *Short Course in Spoken German* (F. S. Crofts & Co., 1946).

## PICTORIAL ADVERTISEMENTS AS A FORM OF REALIA

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[From *GQ,* XVIII, 2, March 1945, 55–57.]

Teachers of foreign languages are well aware of the value of pictures in conversation courses. Pictorial texts and reference books, wall charts, picture post cards, and foreign films are all recognized as useful visual aids.[1] There is one type of picture, however, whose possibilities have been neglected, namely, the pictorial advertisement. A few suggestions on its pedagogical application may be found useful.

The pictures appearing in American advertisements, unlike most other pictorial materials, are readily available to teacher and student at no expense. A full-page ad, or even a smaller one, often portrays a scene clearly distinguishable by the whole class. The relationship between the picture and the product advertised is usually so remote that the sales talk can be entirely ignored.[2] Old magazines provide a convenient and almost inexhaustible supply of scenes from every-day life, representing every situation, environment, and mood. There are scenes which call for description or characterization, others which require an account of an action, and there are scenes which give rise to conjecture and speculation. A good deal of humor is to be found in these various types of pictures. However, those who desire additional humorous material may want to turn to the comic strips of the Sunday paper, or to the comic cartoons of such magazines as the *Saturday Evening Post* or *Collier's.*

By exercising a little care in selection, the instructor can often partially solve the problem of individual differences among his students. For example, the imaginative student may be asked to discuss a picture which encourages him to indulge his fancies while the more matter-of-fact student may be given a picture which lets him exercise his ability at verbal reproduction of what he sees.

As ready-made subject matter for impromptu talks and conversations, the pictorial ad is invaluable. It not only affords teacher and student welcome relief from trite oral themes, but, more than any other type of pictorial material available, it is an excellent means of getting the student, dull or bright, to do most of the talking. The student's speech is not inhibited by his search for ideas; the ads provide them in abundance. Consequently, the instructor finds it relatively easy to refrain from interrupting the student's train of thought with corrections and suggestions at a time when these have little chance of making an impression.

The advertising pictures also provide excellent material for individual assignments to be prepared and presented orally to the class. A number of possible approaches immediately present themselves: 1) The student may be asked to organize his essential ideas and to present his description or story freely; 2) He may be permitted to jot down a few notes, preferably on the picture itself, to aid him in his presentation; 3) He may be asked to write out his speech and to submit it for correction before delivering it; 4) Occasionally, he might even be asked to memorize the corrected material. Probably a combination of these and other approaches would produce the best results. No matter what the details of the approach may be, it is always well to have the student write on the blackboard or explain any new terms introduced in the speech. This may be done either before or during the presentation. Students can learn a great deal from one another in this manner.

In individual oral testing, an exercise on pictures from advertisements is an efficient way of getting the most out of a student in a short time. The teacher can readily judge the speaking ability of a student from his verbal reproduction of an interesting scene of general subject matter. The usual aural-oral test is unfair to the student with a small, but highly active, vocabulary. A picture containing lots of ideas and action gives this student an opportunity to avoid unknowns. If he is clever enough, he will get at some of these unknowns by means of circuitous statements, a skill well worth developing in preparation for contact with native speakers.

There is some value in asking students to collect suitable pictures to be added to the instructor's supply. The student will naturally base his choice on his own ability in the language. In the search for pictures which do not strain his vocabulary excessively, he is automatically practicing his foreign language, and he will often use the dictionary when no one has asked him to do so—one of the first signs of a budding linguist!

Proper guidance on the part of the instructor makes it possible to employ pictorial ads successfully from the most elementary stages of conversation to the most advanced. Because of the infinite variety of subject matter, there is less danger of boring students with carefully selected pictorial advertisements than with other types of pictorial material. However, it is not suggested that ads be used constantly throughout a conversation course, but rather that they might be employed from time to time as one means of stimulating the use of the foreign tongue. Also, the many gaps in any pictorial text or set of wall-charts can easily be filled by systematic selection.

It is true that our ads do not abound in cultural information about foreign nations, but let us not forget that the beauty of Gothic cathedrals or national monuments is difficult to describe, even in one's native tongue. The terminology of aesthetics should be reserved for advanced stages of conversation. However, some of our magazines, such as *Life* and the *National Geographic*, occasionally contain photographic essays portraying the culture of the land and people whose language is being studied.[3] There is so much life and action in many of these that they could readily be adapted to the conversation course in a manner similar to that of the pictorial ads.

The suggestions as outlined here have grown out of the experiences with the trainees of the German unit of the Army Specialized Training Program. I am grateful to these men who, through their mature criticism, have inspired many useful procedures in the teaching of conversation.

## NOTES

1. For German, an excellent pictorial text is Werner Neuse's *Vom Bild zum Wort* (Lippincott), and an exhaustive pictorial reference book for advanced students is Duden's *Bilderwörterbuch*. Additional publications for German and other languages are discussed by Albert W. Holzmann, "A Method of Teaching German Conversation," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (October, 1943), pp. 413–18.

2. For suggestions on the use of advertisements as material for translation, cf.: Ruth C. Jackson, "'Short Time' Suggestions for Spanish Classes," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (December, 1943), p. 584.

3. For an interesting discussion of the values and possibilities of such photographic essays in various courses, cf. Vera L. Peacock, "Escape from the Text," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (December, 1943), pp. 556–8.

# THE TALKING FILM AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

William W. Brickman
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[From *MLJ,* XXIV, 7, April 1940, 498–506.]

*Suggestions to the teacher.*—For the teacher who would avail himself of the opportunity to enrich his foreign language course by the use of the film, the following general hints based to a large extent on experimental evidence are offered:

1. Teachers should view and familiarize themselves with the contents of the films they propose to use in the classroom.
2. The pupils should be prepared likewise by appropriate explanations.
3. The film should not be used where the teacher can use other means just as effectively, and inexpensively.
4. The film must be correlated with the classroom work, with the textbook and with the teacher's methodology.
5. A study guide will make the film more useful.
6. For purposes of instruction only short films should be shown. "Avoid overstimulation of the sense of sight." "Too frequent use of such aids tends to weaken their influence upon a class."
7. In testing for results achieved through the use of films, the teacher should measure factual information, appreciation, habits and attitudes that may have been formed or changed in the learning process.

Bernard[1] suggests the following procedure in teaching French with films: (a) the teacher previews the film; (b) the class is prepared by a preliminary study of the film's content; (c) the exhibition of the film; (d) a thorough discussion of the content; (e) the teacher should ". . . repeat the film-showing to clarify and solidify the ideas it has contributed." Greene,[2] discussing the film dialogue project on *Emil und die Detektive* prepared by Professor William Kurath[3] of the University of Chicago, recommends first the reading of the text, then the study of the dialogue project, the viewing of the film, the dramatization of several scenes of the dialogue project, and finally a second film presentation. ". . . both enjoyment of the picture and comprehension of the spoken dialogue were greatly increased."

## NOTES

1. E. G. Bernard, "Silent Films and Lantern Slides in Teaching French," *MLJ*, XXI, 2, Nov. 1936, p. 114.

2. W. Greene, "Foreign Films for Educational Institutions," *Educational Screen*, XVI, 2, Feb. 1937, p. 60.

3. The project contains a short introduction, in simple German, to six scenes from the film, the actual dialogue, vocabulary and notes, and then references to the chapters in the original Holt text edition.

# SCHOOL RADIO BROADCASTS

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*Director of Foreign Languages, New York City*

[From *MLJ*, XXIV, 8, May 1940, 573–575.]

During the past two years the radio station of the Board of Education of the City of New York (WNYE, 41.1 Mc.) has been offering broadcasts for the schools. The programs are prepared, produced, and broadcast by teachers and students of the city schools. The broadcasts are made from the studios of WNYE (affiliated with WNYC) in the Brooklyn Technical High School.

The broadcasts, which are primarily intended as an aid to instruction, have been given during school time. They consisted of fifteen-minute programs in English, Speech, Music, Science, History, Mathematics, Biology, and Foreign Languages. In part these were lectures by experts, as in Speech and Music. Most of the programs, however, were presented by students from the various types of schools—elementary, junior high, senior high, and vocational. There were in all eighteen separate series of broadcasts, of which three, given in the late afternoon, were entitled "Home Listening for High Schools."

In Foreign Languages students from over two dozen high schools presented two series of French broadcasts, one of German, one of Italian and one of Spanish, consisting of 13 programs each. In addition there were five programs in Hebrew.

The broadcasts were made at 10:15 in the morning, French coming on Monday, Spanish on Tuesday, Italian on Wednesday, Hebrew on Thursday, and German on Friday. The extra French series was given at 1:45 on Monday afternoons.

Although various schools participated, each series centered about a given theme. These were as follows: French, "A Picture of Modern French Civilization" and "High Spots in French Literature"; German, "With the Time Machine into the Past"; Hebrew, "Dawn over Palestine"; Italian, "Famous Figures of the Italian Renaissance"; and Spanish, "The Children of New York Look at Latin America."

The French and German programs were unusually successful. The morning broadcast of the French series consisted of a dramatized travel sketch, involving an American boy and his sister. The afternoon series, "High Spots in French Literature," was presented entirely by one school and consisted of the following topics:

Les Trois Mousquetaires
Le Pêcheur d'Islande
Crainquebille
Maria Chapdelaine
Le Feu
La Farce de Maître Pathelin
Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme
Le Gendre de Monsieur Poirier
Cyrano de Bergerac
La Parure
L'Assassin
Le Louis d'Or
La Dernière Classe

The German series, "With the Time Machine into the Past" offered:

Hamelin and the "Rattenfänger"
Schubert in Vienna
Braunschweig and Till Eulenspiegel
A Visit to the Riesengebirge
A Visit to Nürnberg
Siegfried at the Court of the Burgundians
Wandering Minstrels in Medieval Days
A Visit to Bayreuth and Wagnerian Opera
A Hanseatic Fishing Boat at Lübeck
Schiller at School
Paracelsus: Healer and Alchemist
Hildebrand and Hadubrand
Wilhelm Tell and the Tyrant Gessler

Since the programs are produced by students for students at all levels and incidental outsiders listening in, the amount of foreign language used is extremely limited. In many cases it consists merely of a word or phrase thrown in for the sake of atmosphere. Practically every program, however, contained some musical numbers including songs sung in the foreign language.

One very attractive program of French songs was produced by a junior high school. Seven songs were sung by the children, each one being preceded by a brief explanation in English. Another junior high school presented a program of choral reading in French, German, Latin, and Spanish.

Although many difficulties were encountered in preparing the programs, such as the distance of the studio from the home school, the disinclination of principals to release teachers and pupils, the obtaining of time needed for coaching the pupils, and the securing of good scripts, the broadcasts were a success.

Unusually fine programs were planned, the children showed much eagerness to participate, and time was saved by having the rehearsals in the local school. The last rehearsal only was held in the studio, immediately before going on.

One of the greatest problems is that of effective reception. Not all the schools are equipped with apparatus; many of them have to rely on a small or portable set in the classroom. Another factor is the difference in time schedules in the various schools; the program may begin just as classes are changing. It is hoped that these problems will be solved in the near future, so that the programs may be made accessible to an increasingly large body of students. Since there are almost two hundred thousand students in foreign language classes in the city, the effort to expand the usefulness of the programs seems justified.

The two important questions which have not yet been answered—and which are basic considerations in all school broadcasts—are:

1. Are these radio programs to be primarily an aid to and an amplification of instruction?

2. Are they to be prepared and presented by experts or are the pupils themselves to participate?

If the broadcasts are to be an instrument of instruction—and not merely entertainment—they must be planned with this objective in mind. This means that they must fit into the syllabus, that they must treat a topic as the teacher could not treat it, and that the pedagogic elements must not be lost sight of. The latter implies accuracy in the use of the foreign language.

This leads to the second question. Will the pupils be able to maintain a sufficiently high level of accuracy or would it not be better to have teachers and experts present the programs? If this were done, pupil participation would, of course, be eliminated. Is not the appearance of pupils before the microphone a pleasurable and educationally valuable experience?

The British Broadcasting Corporation has only experts present its school programs; we have used both methods, with pupil participation predominating.

In England and Germany printed booklets are furnished teachers and students for each broadcast. In New York mimeographed question sheets have been used. The plan is now considered of giving some of the programs in foreign languages in the late afternoon and basing the homework assignment on them. Some of the programs have also been recorded so that they may be used again.

The whole matter has passed beyond the stage of experimentation and it is assured that the Board of Education of the City of New York will expand its radio programs. This is especially encouraging for foreign language instruction, which has been considerably enriched by these broadcasts.

## RADIO BROADCASTING AND THE TEACHING OF FRENCH

Anna Balakian
*Hunter College High School*

[From *FR*, XIII, 3, Jan. 1940, 222–224.]

In recent years radio has considerably broadened its scope to include fields other than the purely artistic. Mr. John Kieran's "Information Please" and numerous Professor Quiz programs have succeeded in lending entertainment value to one of the most sober of academic performances; the examination; while the Board of Education has of late been taking the classroom to the broadcasting studio and the radio into the school building. This tendency toward a closer link between entertainment and instruction can turn into a useful assistant of the teacher that same radio which, up until now, has been competing with the teacher for the attention of the adolescent child.

Radio broadcasting should prove of special aid to language teaching. As the study of languages leads to the acquiring of a skill, it is more closely related to the arts and, therefore, of much deeper potentiality as material for radio broadcasting than many other school subjects.

Not only is radio broadcasting of benefit to the students actively engaged in the program, but also to those listening in. For them, radio can change the study of languages from a series of grammatical rules and verb forms to something living not within the school alone but within the homes of the large and varying public that broadcasting can reach.

* * * * *

Last year the Metropolitan Chapter of the A. A. T. F. inaugurated a series of French broadcasts over a local station, WBNX, known as "the station that speaks your language." We had discovered that, although there were innumerable programs in various foreign languages over this station, there was at the time only one sustaining feature in French. After our first broadcast we received many letters of encouragement, some of them from people not connected in any way with schools, but only interested in hearing French over the radio. One listener said:

> I have been a WBNX fan for some years and have enjoyed the Spanish, German and Italian programs. I have always deplored the scarcity of French programs on the air and especially over WBNX. . . . I am very glad that you have introduced this French series and am sure many other listeners share my enthusiasm over this first program today. The French was beautiful and it was amazing to learn that the performers were just high school pupils.

* * * * *

Participating in the series of broadcasts were the four municipal colleges: Brooklyn College, City College, Hunter College, and Queens College; Columbia University, Fordham University and New York University; Evander Childs High School, Hunter College High School, Townsend Harris High School; the High School of Garden City; the Lycée Français of New York.

The performers were students of all ages, ranging from a nine-year-old to alumni and graduate students. The programs, which were varied both in form and presentation, included scenes from plays as old as *la Farce du Cuvier* and *Le Pauvre sous l'Escalier,* as classical as Molière's, and modern as Jacques Deval's and Courteline's. Recitations ranged from the fables of La Fontaine to the choral recitation of the poetry of Verlaine and Paul Fort. Musical selections included classical and popular songs of different periods.

In a few instances the classroom situation was also introduced, with the teacher asking questions and the pupils answering and performing as naturally as if they were in school.

* * * * *

This year we have again started to broadcast and are seeking an even wider range of radio material.

In the fifteen minutes a week that are given to us we wish to achieve many aims. These programs must be simple to understand, so that the pupil of average ability will not feel that French is beyond his grasp; they must try to revive the interest of that widely dispersed group of high school and college graduates with "two years of French"; they must be varied enough so as not to have too much of the school room atmosphere; they must be "French" enough in order to give pleasure to those who are not interested in text-book French, but who, having traveled in France, remember the accent of French voices, and who may feel that the land that they would like to call their second "patrie" is at the moment, and will perhaps be for some time to come, beyond their reach.

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# TEACHING MATERIALS: TEXTBOOKS, AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS, THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY *

MAXIM NEWMARK
*Brooklyn Technical High School*

[From *Report of the Committee on the Place and Function of Modern Languages in the Public Schools of New York City,* Associate Superintendent, Jacob Greenberg, Chairman. New York, 1947.]

The aims of the recommended six-year course must necessarily serve as the criteria for the selection and employment of all teaching aids. To guide the discussion that follows, these aims are briefly summarized: (1) development of the linguistic skills required for using the foreign language as an instrument of communication; (2) development of attitudes conducive to intercultural harmony and international understanding; (3) development of an awareness of language structure in its relationship to sound thinking and improvement of English; (4) development of a linguistic foundation for purposes of future vocational specialization.

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* This article is the editor's original contribution as a member of the committee which prepared the report mentioned in the acknowledgment. It does not reflect subsequent revisions and deletions, for which the committee as a whole is responsible.

## TEXTBOOKS

*Subject matter.* The above aims may conceivably be served by any or all of the textbook selections dealing with the topics enumerated below. However, certain types of subject matter are especially conducive to a particular aim and are so classified. The material should, of course, be graded according to the level of instruction and the maturity of the students.

The reading matter in textbooks designed primarily for developing skills in communication should be representative of the *living* foreign language, that is, the everyday, informal speech and writing of the foreign people. Suitable selections would be stories, anecdotes, informal letters, dramatic skits, radio scripts, newspaper and magazine items, movie, drama and book reviews, popular science, travel, adventure and sport stories. The oral phase of our aim would require conversations and dialogues based on everyday situations encountered by a traveler in the foreign country: procuring passports and visas or foreign exchange, using the transportation and communication systems, reading traffic signs and public notices, asking one's way, meeting people, dining out, renting a room, etc.

For the cultural aim, suitable textbook matter would be selections dealing with the history, art, literature, science, political, commercial, industrial institutions, ideals of the foreign country, and characteristics of the people. In the later years of the course would come their great works of literature and their political and cultural documents. Of special importance for inter-cultural purposes would be the contributions of the foreign civilization to our own and vice versa. In this connection, it is highly desirable for textual material to deal not only with the institutions and ideals of the foreign people but also with those of the United States; for the promotion of international understanding is a two-way process, and the American student should not merely be exposed to the foreign culture in a passive and uncritical way but should at some point in the course be taught to express himself positively, in the foreign language, regarding the way of life, the traditions, ideals and institutions of his own country.

To attain the goal of an awareness of language structure and an enlargement of the English vocabulary, specific textual material may be employed dealing with the interrelationship of the foreign language and our own: foreign speech islands in the United States and their influence on the American language, the history of language development and consequent foreign derivations and cognates in English, foreign loan words in English and how they come about, etc.

The aim of vocational specialization would entail the selection of subject matter paralleling the various courses of specialization in our secondary schools: art, commercial, technical, scientific, etc. Such material would be used after a suitable foundation in the general aspects of the foreign language had been acquired.

*Types of textbook.* Textbooks devoted primarily to grammar will be excluded from the elementary stages of instruction in the recommended course. Such textbooks are recommended only for review or for reference purposes. The desirable type is the "reader-conversation-grammar" textbook with primary emphasis on whole units of foreign text, permitting inductive study of grammar when the need arises, i.e. for functional purposes. Other types of textbook necessary for later stages in the course will be readers, conversation books and composition books. Work-books supplementing any of these types and containing drill material as well as achievement tests are highly desirable. In the advanced stages of the course, the use of carefully selected foreign books, either imported or reprinted by American publishers, is recommended.

Great care should be taken in the choice of bilingual dictionaries for student use. The dictionary which is merely a word-book, indiscriminately listing equivalents or translations, should be avoided. The desirable type of dictionary for students is the one which uses the word entries in sentences in the foreign language illustrating the different meanings of the word as determined by usage in context (semantic range). This type of dictionary can be a real learning aid; it helps the student avoid the grosser errors usually resulting from the use of ordinary foreign-language dictionaries.

Most of the textbook types mentioned above are already available, but the conversation and composition types do not yet exist in suitably graded form for the elementary stages of the six-year course. However, American publishers have been responsive to changes in foreign-language objectives and methodology, and we may expect that the new types of textbook required will be provided within a comparatively short time. The Board of Education can do its share in facilitating preparation of new textbooks by offering suitable incentives to the teachers who will have to produce them.

*Textbook construction.* It is, of course, assumed that the new type of textbook will follow well-established principles of modern textbook construction based on the psychology of language learning. This is especially important in respect to organization of material, progressively graded presentation, purposeful illustrations, exercises, typography and format. Vocabulary, idioms and syntactical items should be based on standard frequency counts and introduced in assimilable quantities with frequent recurrence in succeeding lessons. Helpful devices such as the "Visible vocabulary" should be employed whenever suitable. All of these principles are still valid for the new-type reader. However, in the case of conversation books, existing frequency counts, based as they are largely on reading matter, will have to be supplemented by the new oral "utility" lists giving words and phrases useful in particular conversational situations. Such lists have already appeared in the professional language periodicals and in conversation textbooks. Eventually, oral frequency counts will have to be made and incorporated into official syllabi or else we shall again have the anarchy that prevailed before the time of the Modern Language Study.

*Exercises.* In general, any type of exercise may be considered desirable which affords the student practice in mastering the foreign language for communicative purposes. To this broad criterion should be added the general principle that each exercise should be strictly functional, i.e. the type most ideally designed to practice the particular skill desired. Exercises of an artificial type involving complicated mental gymnastics difficult even for the native speaker of a foreign language should be avoided. An example of this is the so-called "progressive" or "sliding" synopsis, which drills verb forms in a manner never encountered in real communicative situations. Drilling to achieve an isolated facility in grammatical forms places too much reliance on the moot possibility of transfer of skills. There is no guarantee that such facility will be automatically transferred into actual communication. It is the opinion of this committee that the best type of exercise is the one which provides drill in whole units of expression relevant to a central theme or a specific communicative situation.

It is not necessary to dwell on the exercises designed to achieve facility in reading. This phase of language study has already been thoroughly explored in the traditional reading course. However, in a course emphasizing language as communication, it is obvious that the question-and-answer type of exercise assumes vital importance, for questions and answers are the very essence of communication. The new course must insist on questions being answered in the foreign language, either orally or in writing. It will also be necessary for the student to learn how to phrase questions of his own in the foreign language. Consequently, the committee recommends the use of more abundant exercise material designed to promote the skills of understanding, answering and asking questions in the foreign language.

In the more advanced stages of the recommended course, textbook exercises should be similar to the types found in the books used in our English composition and speech classes. Owing to the brevity of the frequent recurrence in succeeding lessons. Helpful devices such as the "Visible vocabulary" should be employed whenever suitable. All of these principles are still valid for the new-type reader. However, in the case of conversation books, existing frequency counts, based as they are largely on reading matter, will have to be supplemented by the new oral "utility" lists giving words and phrases useful in particular conversational situations. Such lists have already appeared in the professional language periodicals and in conversation textbooks. Eventually, oral frequency counts will have to be made and incorporated into official syllabi or else we shall again have the anarchy that prevailed before the time of the Modern Language Study.

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traditional reading course in foreign languages, such exercises are rarely to be found in existing foreign language textbooks. The so-called foreign language composition book is actually a book dealing with translation from English into the foreign language. While this type of exercise has its uses, it is not the only type that promotes active mastery of the foreign language. In the contemplated six-year course, more direct methods will have given the student sufficient facility in the foreign language to enable him to perform exercises requiring and promoting active use of the foreign tongue. Exercise material is needed which involves operations such as the following: (1) Formulating original sentences in the foreign language, based on a central theme; (2) Formulating topics for discussion, based on a reading selection; (3) Practicing the technique of writing outlines in the foreign language; (4) Preparing a series of questions based on a reading selection, a movie, a recording or a radio program; (5) Writing a précis or abstract in the foreign language, based on written or oral foreign language or English sources; (6) Rewriting a narrative episode into dialogue form; (7) Giving an oral paraphrase of a passage in the foreign language; (8) Preparing a conversation in the foreign language, based on a brief situational outline in English; (9) Preparing a short talk in the foreign language (topics: books, movies, radio programs, current events, interesting experiences, contrasting customs, vacations, trips, etc.); (10) Organizing several units of the above exercises into a panel or round table discussion; (11) Writing letters to foreign students; (12) Writing scenarios, playlets or radio scripts in the foreign language; (13) Acting as an interpreter for a foreign visitor to the U. S., based on a brief situational outline in English; (14) Demonstrating some simple appliance or machine in the foreign language: (15) Writing English abstracts or complete translations of letters, political documents, news communiqués, and legal, technical or commercial articles (specific examples showing the differences between an abstract or brief paraphrase, a literal translation, a free translation, and a complete and accurate translation into good English).

## AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

*Functions.* Audio-visual aids can serve the aims of the contemplated course provided they fulfill specific and purposive functions and are employed according to plan at relevant points in the course of study. The following are some of the legitimate functions of such aids: 1. to provide a cultural setting for the foreign language, i.e. a proper classroom atmosphere; 2. to aid directly in the attainment of linguistic skills; 3. to aid in the teaching of foreign culture and civilization; 4. to stimulate and maintain interest in the study of foreign language; 5. to provide materials for activities and projects for younger pupils. Of these functions, it is obvious that the attainment of linguistic skills and the teaching of the foreign civilization are of paramount importance. Hence, this committee endorses any audio-visual aids which actively promote these two functions in particular. Suitable materials are: pictures, maps, language charts, films, recordings, foreign newspapers, periodicals, etc.

*Recommended aids.* Display material which is merely decorative, and aids which lead to discussion entirely in the English language can only serve the secondary functions of realia in foreign language instruction. Full exploitation of aids would require discussion as far as possible in the foreign language. This involves careful selection and planning. In the light of these considerations, the committee recommends that the following principles be observed in the selection of audio-visual aids: (1) display material, wherever possible, should have foreign language captions; (2) pictures should be selected which are adaptable for teaching vocabulary and which will serve as a stimulus to discussion in the foreign language; (3) films should have accompanying study and discussion guides in the foreign language; (4) machines for playing records should be equipped with a "spotter" and "repeater" device permitting the student to replay the recorded speech or to stop it and repeat orally what he has heard. Another device permitting the student to pronounce the recorded speech is the ASTP type of record which provides an interval of silence between recorded phrases and sentences.

*The language laboratory.* It is expected that foreign language teachers, as in the past, will avail themselves of the various service bureaus conducted by the respective language teachers associations and by certain language schools, museums, and university schools of education. However, in a large school system such as ours, ready availability of teaching aids would require the establishment of at least one central clearing agency at Board of Education headquarters, and one in each school where foreign languages are taught. The central agency, among other functions, could procure and lend out aids and equipment of a type too expensive to be provided for each individual language department, i.e. sound projectors, recording and play-back equipment, unit realia exhibits, etc.

Each school in which foreign languages are taught should have at least one language laboratory for practice, speech analysis, and for serving as a clearing house and repository of audio-visual aids. The present custom of centering these activities in the department office is distinctly unsatisfactory because of cramped quarters and interference with administrative activities. The language laboratory should be equipped with a still projector, a sound projector (if possible), a projection screen and dark shades or curtains. Other essentials are practice and recording booths with appropriate equipment. Display cases, phonograph record cabinets, filing cabinets and duplicator equipment for turning out the foreign language newspaper could also be placed in this room.

Many of these items of equipment are standard and can be supplied on requisition. The extra expense for non-standard items can be met from the proceeds of foreign moving-picture shows, sale of foreign language publications, etc.

By arrangement with the school administration, language teachers should spend their "assigned" period in the studio for purposes of supervising a student realia squad whose functions would be to prepare material requisitioned by the language teachers for particular lessons, to attend to correspondence regarding loan material, film booking, etc.

The educational value of the foreign language laboratory has been amply demonstrated at the various colleges and schools where it has been instituted. This committee feels that the full implementation of its recommended six-year course would require the use of audio-visual aids as described above.

# 9 : TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

## OLD AND NEW TYPE TESTS

Ben D. Wood
*Columbia College*

[From *New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests*, B. D. Wood, P.A.C.C., Vol. I. The Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1928. Reprinted by permission.]

(pp. 109–110) The new-type tests in French, Spanish, and German are parallel in form, each consisting of three Parts:

Part I is a vocabulary test of 100 multiple-choice items. Each item consists of a foreign language word, followed by five English words which are numbered. The student selects the one of these five English words which most nearly corresponds in meaning to the foreign language word, and puts its number in parentheses at the right of the item. The score is the number of correct identifications which the student makes.

Part II is a reading-comprehension test of 75 true-false items, carefully and experimentally graded in difficulty. Each item is a statement in the foreign language of an obvious truth or of an obvious fallacy. The truth or the falsity of each statement is easily within the knowledge of any high school student intelligent enough to study a foreign language, so that it is a test of ability to read the foreign language and not a test of special knowledge. The student indicates his understanding of the statements by putting a plus sign in the parentheses at the right of true statements, and zero at the right of false statements. The score is the number of correct responses diminished by the number of wrong responses. This method of scoring is used in Part II to overcome the gross effects of guessing on the part of intellectually incautious students. Since there are only two possible answers, true or false, students unable to read a single one of the statements might toss a coin and secure 50% correct answers on the average. Thus, students who mark fifty statements by pure guess would on the average mark twenty-five correctly, and twenty-five wrongly: the scores of these students, on the average, would be twenty-five minus twenty-five, or zero.

Part III is a 100-item completion test of grammar, idioms, spelling, word-order, capitalization, accents, etc., and of active vocabulary. Each item consists of a short English sentence or phrase, followed by a foreign language translation in which one, two, or three words are missing. The student writes the word or words necessary to complete the translation on the dotted line at the right of the page. The score is the number of items perfectly completed.

(pp. 198–199) *Methods of construction.*—The old-type modern language examinations used in this experiment were constructed and edited in accordance with the subjective judgments of committees composed of notable scholars and teachers. The members of the committees were appointed long before the examinations were actually made and some members had served on similar examination committees for several years, and therefore had considerable experience back of their judgment in such matters. There was one committee for each language, the State Supervisor of Modern Languages being an ex-officio member of all three committees. The examination committee for each language constructed the second-, third- and fourth-year examinations in that language. Each member of each committee brought to the meeting at which the final form of the examination was decided upon, carefully prepared questions for one or several parts of the examination. The offerings of each member of the committee were discussed by the committee as a whole and the questions finally adopted represented the best questions brought to the meeting by the various members. There is no means of knowing how much time the members of the committees spent on their tasks before they came to the one and only conference of examination makers. But the conference at which one set of second-, third- and fourth-year examinations were finally constructed took up the better part of a working day. The writer of this report was privileged to meet with one or two of these committees and was greatly impressed by the seriousness with which the members took their tasks, and with the care exercised in criticizing and in improving the questions that were finally adopted for each of the examinations. The most impressive feature of the conference, however, was that all questions regarding the relative difficulties of two or more words, or of two or more sentences or paragraphs, or regarding the relative measurement values of two similar or dissimilar questions, were decided, as far as could be made out, entirely by subjective judgment. There was no reference made at any time during the meetings to any *objective evidence* concerning the difficulty or the measurement value of any of the questions discussed. There were frequent disagreements on such questions, and after free, and often spirited, discussion or argument, the matter was settled by a vote of the members of the committee. After the examinations had been made by these committees they were taken to Albany by the Supervisor and there passed through several editorial processes.

(pp. 207–208) *Method of constructing new-type tests.*—The construction of the new-type modern language examinations used in this experiment was a much longer process. The forms of the questions were decided upon after three years of extensive experimentation with more than 20 different forms of modern language examination questions. The vocabulary samplings used were based upon word counts of sixteen widely used textbooks in two languages and upon a synthesis of various word counts of textbooks and syllabi in the third language. The grammar and idiom content of the new-type tests were determined item by item, on the basis of extensive syntheses of standard grammars and syllabi. These selections of materials were finally checked up by actual experiment. No item was accepted for final use unless it gave a positive correlation with known criteria of achievement. Each new-type examination was constructed to cover the whole range of achievement in high school modern language work. That is, each examination included some items easy enough to be answered correctly by the poorest students at the end of the first year and some questions so hard that they could be answered only by the best students at the end of the fourth year. The "easiness" or "hardness" of each individual item was determined upon the basis of the responses by numbers of modern language students in high schools ranging from several hundred to several thousand. No appeal was made at any time to the subjective judgment of scholars regarding the difficulty or the measurement value of an item.

The most striking difference between the two methods of construction, aside from the difference in quality of the resulting products, is that the new-type method shows a much more adequate appreciation than the old-type method of both the difficulty and the importance of constructing sound examinations. In the old-type very much is left to subjective opinion and to chance; in the new-type everything that is capable of objective verification is experimentally verified. It is because of the reliance on experimental evidence that the new-type examinations are constructed so as to cover the whole range of achievement in a single examination, thus making possible comparability between the achievements of the various classes; and that such comprehensive examinations are at the outset made in several equivalent forms, thus making possible comparability of measurements at different stages of the student's progress.

(pp. 318–319) *Summary.*—The general conclusions from the data of this experiment are that the new-type examinations are roughly twice as reliable and valid as the old-type examinations of equal time allowance; that the new-type examinations afford comparable measures for all classes in a given subject matter in the same and in different years and thus offer a means of eliminating overlapping of classes and variations in local school standards to a much greater extent than they are eliminated by the old-type Regents Examinations; and that the new-type tests over a series of years will cost not more than 10% as much as old-type examinations, as administered and read by the College Entrance Examination Board, cost.

The validity of the comparison of new- and old-type costs on the basis of College Entrance Board figures cannot be denied on the ground that the actual cost of Regents reviewing under the present system is very much less than the cost reported by the College Entrance Examination Board, because the data reported above show conclusively that the sample method of reviewing cannot for a moment be considered as adequate. There is considerable evidence showing that the results of the College Entrance Board Examinations evince significant variations in standards and inaccuracies in spite of the careful and costly way in which the examinations are read. That such variations and inaccuracies are necessarily greater when the reading is less complete is self-evident.

In this study we have discussed the weakness existing in the Regents Examinations and procedures for purely constructive ends. Our fundamental recommendation, therefore, is that the Regents system should take advantage of the values of the new-type without surrendering any of the *real* values of the old-type examinations. The committee charged with the task of constructing old-type questions should be provided with means for securing objective and experimental evidence on the difficulties and measurement values of old-type questions. It seems almost certain that the full values of the old-type question forms have never been fully exploited because of the reliance in their construction on the subjective opinion of scholars rather than upon experimental evidence.

It seems fair to suggest that the new-type forms of questions be adopted for half of each Regents examination period. More detailed recommendations obviously are not within the province of this report. How and by whom the new-type tests, if adopted, will be constructed; how, when and by whom they shall be scored; what weight shall be given to the new-type parts of the examinations; in how many and in what subject-matters shall the new-type forms be tried out first; what budgetary redistributions and what administrative reorganizations shall be necessary in the Examinations and Inspections Division of the State Education Department,—these are only a few of the important questions that would have to be faced if the new-type forms were adopted by the Regents. They are obviously questions which can be solved only by careful consideration on the part of the officers of the State Department of Education.

# MEASURING ACHIEVEMENT IN THE MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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[From *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, V. A. C. Henmon, P.A.C.C. Vol. V. The Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1930. Reprinted by permission.]

(pp. 1–4) *The necessity for standardized tests; their values.*—The Modern Foreign Language Study and the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages were confronted at the outset of their investigations by the necessity of constructing standard tests to measure objectively progress and achievement in the modern foreign languages, since few such tests were available and none adequate to their purposes. The construction and standardization of objective tests have, therefore, been major enterprises of the Study and the Canadian Committee, and have absorbed a large share of their energy and resources. In view of the widespread application of more exact quantitative methods in education and the interest of language teachers in standard tests, it was felt that no more important work could be undertaken than this time-consuming and expensive task. Valid, reliable, comprehensive, and administratively feasible tests may be expected to be of permanent value in—

1. Setting standards of accomplishment at different levels of training in objective, realistic, and comparable terms.
2. Making possible more accurate comparisons of attainment in different schools and classes under different methods and conditions.
3. Serving as a means of classification and placement to secure homogeneity in classes in terms of actual achievement in the languages rather than in terms of time spent in study.
4. Furnishing instruments of analysis for investigation of the effects of varying ages, intelligence levels, methods, curricula, and objectives.
5. Diagnosing deficiencies and locating them for definite remedial exercises.
6. Defining in more specific terms the immediate objectives of instruction.

Without more objective and impersonal measures than opinion or the highly subjective, variable, and unreliable system of school marks, no fruitful or convincing analysis can be made of many important problems. Among the problems whose solution is vital to the efficiency and improvement of instruction in the modern languages are the following: the effect on achievement of different methods of instruction; the effect of age at which the study of a language is begun; the effect of varying periods of disuse on language abilities; the relationships between the different abilities involved in learning a foreign language; the transfer effect from the study of one foreign language to another; comparative achievements of pupils beginning the study of a modern language in secondary school and in college; comparative achievement of pupils in European and in American schools; and the effect of practice in reading *vs.* practice in translation on the ability to read a foreign language. Convincing evidence on these problems and scores of others like them cannot be found without something in the way of measuring devices which we have not possessed. If such methods of measurement had been developed or if the Study had been given a two-year period to devise them as a preparation for its work, it would have been in a position to attack many of these problems in a progressive way. As it is, the Study has been forced of necessity to concentrate its energies on the production of the instruments of analysis, leaving the application of them in the solution of these problems largely to future investigations and research.

*Steps in test construction.*—The construction of tests in the modern foreign languages involves the following steps:

1. The analysis of achievement in modern languages into the specific abilities or elements of which it is composed.
2. The selection of a testing technique and a test length to give objective and reliable results.
3. The selection and gradation of test items.
4. Standardization on a basis of a wide administration at different levels to establish accurate norms of performance.

*Criteria of tests.*—The essential criteria of a standard educational test are *validity, reliability, comprehensiveness,* and *administrative feasibility.* To be valid, it must measure what it purports to measure. To be reliable, it must yield consistent results with a minimum of error when administered to different groups or to the same group at different times. It must be comprehensive enough to give comparable measures at different stages or levels of achievement. To be administratively feasible, it must be reasonable in cost and in length of time required, objective, and largely self-administering.

*Abilities to be measured in the modern foreign languages.*—The analysis of achievement in a modern foreign language reveals a variety of specific abilities to be measured. The four immediate objectives of instruction in the foreign languages are development of the ability to read, to write, and to speak the language and to understand it when spoken. While these primary abilities normally grow up together and are perhaps highly correlated, they may show with varying methods and conditions of instruction considerable independence. These fundamental abilities may be broken up into other specific, measurable aspects. To secure a fairly complete profile of a pupil's achievement in a language requires a large battery of tests:

1. A *Vocabulary Test*, to measure growth in knowledge of words and word meanings at successive stages under varying conditions and with varying methods.
2. A *Silent Reading* or *Comprehension Test*, to measure the ability to read and understand the written or printed language. This test should be made up of two parts: one for measuring the understanding of sentences; the other, the more difficult to construct, for measuring the understanding of paragraphs.
3. A *Translation-into-English Test*, to measure ability to render a foreign language into English.
4. A *Translation Test*, to measure ability to render English sentences or passages into the foreign tongue.
5. A *Written Composition Scale*, to measure ability in free composition in the foreign language.
6. A *Grammar Test*, to measure functional knowledge of forms, syntax, and idiom.
7. An *Aural Comprehension Test*, to measure ability to understand a foreign language when spoken.
8. A *Pronunciation Test*, to measure the ability to enunciate correctly the sounds and words of the foreign language.
9. An *Oral Composition Test*, to measure ability to speak the foreign language.

Standardized group tests for pronunciation and oral composition which could be administered widely seem almost impossibilities. The others are perfectly feasible with time, resources and coöperative effort. It has, of course, not been within the bounds of possibility to construct for French, German, Italian, and Spanish, the twenty-eight or more standard tests needed. As a matter of fact, the number of tests to be constructed and tried out is much larger than twenty-eight, if account be taken, not only of the alternative forms which are necessary, but also of the many different testing techniques which must be studied.

In order to measure an individual's achievement with reasonable accuracy it may not be necessary to sample his attainments as completely as the above schedule of tests would indicate. Some or even many of these abilities may be so highly correlated that measurements of ability in all of them may be superfluous. The accumulating evidence of possible specializations of abilities shown in all fields that have been adequately tested, however, warns against the dangers of unproved assumptions. In order to discover relationships between different language abilities, it will be necessary ultimately to develop all of them and then to select from the complete battery those tests that are the most significant for measuring achievement.

## TESTING LINGUISTIC APTITUDE

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[From *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages,* V. A. C. Henmon, et al. P.A.C.C. Vol. XIV. The Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1929. Reprinted by permission.]

(pp. 23–24) *The predictive value of special aptitude tests.*—It is quite evident from the foregoing presentation that intelligence ratings, general scholarship ratings and other readily available data do not hold forth promise of providing adequate bases for prediction and classification and that as a matter of fact the estimates from them are less adequate than is usually supposed. Attention must be directed to the construction of special apitude tests.

*Steps in testing linguistic aptitude.*—Linguistic aptitude undoubtedly rests upon a complex of abilities and requires a battery of tests for its measurement. It is not likely that any single test will ever be found to reveal the aptitude or serve as a basis for the prediction of achievement. The construction of a really valuable test battery is a difficult and complicated task as the studies reported in this monograph show. Hull,[1] in a detailed analysis of the methods and special procedures, distinguishes six steps in aptitude test battery construction, which may be modified and applied to the problem of measuring aptitude for a modern foreign language. The first step is a careful psychological analysis of the activity in question, this analysis being defined as "a more or less protracted, objective and systematic study of the behavior of individuals actually engaged in the particular activity." The second step is the choice of a preliminary battery of tests designed to measure if possible the traits which seem to be most significant from the aptitude analysis. In view of the unreliability of estimates of what tests will be found to be significant, it is usually necessary to prepare an assortment two or three times as large as is desired for the final battery. A wide range of tests is desirable as it is important for the final battery to secure tests which yield low correlations with each other but as high as possible with the criterion chosen. In the choice of tests the test maker will necessarily face many questions in the selection of test items, the selection of test techniques and the length of the tests to secure validity, reliability, objectivity, comprehensiveness and administrative feasibility, which are the more important characteristics of good tests or test batteries. The third step is the administration of the tests to a large number of individuals who are about to begin training. The fourth step is the securing of a criterion score with which the results of tests may be correlated, a quantitative determination of the aptitude after a period of training. This is, of course, the most troublesome question with which the aptitude psychologist has to deal, especially so in the case of abilities in school subjects where objective criteria of achievement and progress are so difficult to obtain. Teachers' marks or estimates are subjective and unreliable, as has been so often shown.

The development of objective standardized tests of achievement has been a major concern of the American and Canadian Committees and the results of these efforts have been reported in detail elsewhere.[2] While the score in a standard test constitutes a better criterion, there are two limitations here which complicate the problem. In the first place, ability in a foreign language involves the ability to read, to write, to speak the language, and to understand it when spoken. Objective tests of the ability to speak a language or to understand it when spoken are not included in the batteries devised and so the oral-aural skills which constitute important aspects of linguistic achievement are not directly measured except insofar as they are correlated with the abilities in vocabulary, reading, grammar and composition which are measured. Fortunately, however, the studies of Ford and Robert[3] of the correlations between the oral-aural skills and the written tests show a distinctly close relationship between ratings of oral proficiency and written performances. In the second place, achievement and progress in a language are determined not only by linguistic capacity but by other traits as well. An achievement test score, even if all the essential abilities were objectively measured, would still fall short of providing a perfect criterion.

The fifth step is the technical analysis of the correlations with the criterion and the intercorrelations on a basis of which the final selection of tests may be made. The sixth step is the weighting of the tests selected to give the maximum predictive value.

## NOTES

1. Clark L. Hull, *Aptitude Testing,* World Book Co., Chapters IX–XIII.

2. V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages,* Vol. V, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages.

3. *Modern Language Instruction in Canada,* Vol. VII, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, University of Toronto Press, 1928.

# PROGNOSIS TESTING

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[From *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages,* V. A. C. Henmon, et al. Chap. VI, "A Modern Foreign Language Prognosis Test." P.A.C.C. Vol. XIV. The Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1929. Reprinted by permission.]

(pp. 91–92) *Theory and technique of prognosis testing.*—There is an urgent need for prognostic tests in the secondary subjects. With the increasing heterogeneity of the secondary school population, entrance into the academic subjects of the curriculum must be selective. Pupils should be encouraged to undertake those subjects in which they are likely to be successful and should also be advised against or prevented from undertaking those subjects where there is a probability of failure. In order to guide pupils, advice must be given early enough to prevent the waste which comes from misdirected effort. Prognosis tests are instruments that may be used in determining what this advice should be. On the basis of scores on a prognostic test a selection may be made of those pupils who have a chance of achieving a measure of success in a course. Likewise the most efficient administration of ability-grouping requires tests which measure ability in particular subjects rather than general intelligence tests which measure average achievement. If pupils are to be grouped into fast- and slow-learning sections at the beginning of their course, prognostic tests are needed in order to predict as accurately as possible the success of the subsequent learning.

Although the theory of aptitude or prognostic testing has not gone far enough to yield a definite technique for the construction of these tests, there are certain general principles that may be applied. One must resort at present to a more or less blind trying out of tests of many kinds and depend on the results to indicate which of the tests are most serviceable for prognosis. There is no fundamental experience to use as a guide in the selection of material for prognosis tests in most subjects, and foreign languages are no exception.

In general the technique of the construction of a prognosis test consists, first, of giving to a large and representative group of pupils before the study in a subject is commenced, a number of promising or suggestive tests. These tests should be scored and tabulated and laid aside until the end of the year. At the close of the period of study, comprehensive achievement tests in the subject are administered to the same pupils that took the test at the beginning of the course. Then each of the tests given at the beginning is correlated with the indicated achievement at the end. That test which shows the highest correlation with end-achievement may be said to have the highest predictive value. The technique of the multiple regression equation may be used to determine the best weighting of a combination of tests in order that the composite may yield a maximum correlation with the final achievement.

This method of determining the best prognostic test is not without its defects. The aim of a prognostic test is to determine aptitude. Actual final achievement in any particular case is the resultant of aptitude and of the forces of instruction, including interest and effort of the learner, organization of the material, skill of the teacher, etc. It is never known how high the correlation is between the aptitude of the members of a group and their achievement. However, the best that can be done is to take actual results as they are found under ordinary circumstances as a criterion. In any event, tests obtained by using this procedure may be confidently depended upon to be better than tests constructed on the basis of a subjective analysis of the subject materials.

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# THE USE OF IOWA PLACEMENT EXAMINATIONS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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In addition to charting the individual student's progress in the subject matter, modern instruction demands an evaluation of the methods and materials used. To serve both these major ends of college instruction the

*Iowa Placement Examinations* were constructed. Since 1924 experimental studies have been directed to the analysis and improvement of the examinations with the result that it is now not necessary to subordinate the service value to experimental procedures with the tests themselves.

The nature and basis of the placement examination were stated by *Dean C. E. Seashore* as follows:

1. It is devoted to specific subjects or fields of knowledge, such as English, mathematics, or chemistry.
2. It differentiates between training in a subject and natural fitness for that field.
3. It is a departmental affair and is given separately by each department in its immediate interests and needs.
4. It serves as an introduction to the subject, being prepared with the purpose of reminding the student of the essential prerequisites for the course and indicating the general character of the activity that will be pursued in the course, and being written from the point of view of the art of teaching that it shall constitute the most profitable exercise for the first two hours of the course.
5. This examination should give, at the end of two hours, as adequate information about the student's place and needs in the course as the instructor ordinarily acquires by the end of the first semester under the traditional method of instruction.
6. The record of a general intelligence test may be used to supplement this examination, but that is not essential, as a series of placement aptitude tests will be more significant than a general intelligence test.
7. It is prepared by, or in responsible collaboration with, successful teachers and writers in the specific course.
8. It is given for a specific purpose, and the results may be applied immediately in the organization of sections of the class on the basis of this objective information about the character of the preparation and natural aptitude for the subject.

As a result of the extensive experimental work conducted under the guidance of *Dr. G. D. Stoddard* it was found that:

> . . . it is better to infer aptitude for a particular subject through a test which gives a more general measure of mental ability; a number of placement examinations lead to a profile of one's mental-educational skills, which in the case of adults is more intelligible and more significant than a single measure such as I.Q.; prediction of both general academic success and performance in specific subjects is more accurate with placement examinations than with general psychological tests.

These examinations consist of two series—*aptitude tests* which measure the particular mental abilities related to subsequent success in a subject, and *training tests* which are essentially standardized achievement tests of sufficient scope and difficulty to be valid and reliable at the college level.

The *Foreign Language Aptitude* test employs English and Esperanto for predicting first year achievement in foreign languages. Its contents in both Forms A and B are as follows:

PART I. Measures knowledge of English grammar with special reference to parts of speech, inflections, and the roots of common English words.

PART II. Measures the amount of transfer of training from English to an unfamiliar language. Esperanto is employed, success in most cases depending upon the student's ability to grasp the probable meaning of the whole unit of thought.

PART III. Employs Esperanto to measure the student's ability to comprehend and apply rules of grammar.

PART IV. Measures aptitude for translation. The student observes an English translation of material in Esperanto and is asked for English equivalents, Esperanto equivalents, and parts of speech.

The *French* and *Spanish Training* tests are now available in four forms. The contents of the four series in both languages are quite similar, although there are slight variations in technique in the X and Y forms.

PART I. Consists of fifty words in the foreign language for which the student must furnish or identify the English equivalents.

PART II. Tests knowledge of functional grammar.

PART III. Tests the principal usages of common verbs, tenses, and in the case of the French tests, idioms.

PART IV. Measures reading comprehension ability. Three paragraphs are given in ascending order of difficulty, and definite questions are asked concerning them.

Each year cumulative norms are prepared and distributed without charge to users of the examinations. The latest norms for the *Foreign Language Aptitude* and the *French* and *Spanish Training* tests are presented in the following tables.

TABLE I

Norms and Reliability Data, Foreign Language Aptitude Test
Forms A and B

| | Form A<br>FA | Form B<br>FA |
|---|---|---|
| Number of cases | 5075 | 3379 |
| Mean | 75 | 70 |
| Median | 74 | 69 |
| Upper Quartile | 96 | 90 |
| Lower Quartile | 55 | 49 |
| Standard Deviation | 27 | 28 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Percentiles* | | |
| 99 | 135 | 130 |
| 90 | 113 | 109 |
| 80 | 100 | 96 |
| 70 | 91 | 86 |
| 60 | 83 | 77 |
| 50 | 74 | 69 |
| 40 | 67 | 61 |
| 30 | 59 | 53 |
| 20 | 50 | 44 |
| 10 | 39 | 34 |
| 1 | 20 | 16 |
| Reliability Coefficients | .97 | .94 |

### TABLE II

Norms and Reliability Data, French and Spanish Training, Forms A and B *

| | Fr. Training | | Span. Training | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Form A | Form B | Form A | Form B |
| Number of Cases | 1284 | 1535 | 696 | 1081 |
| Mean | 68 | 72 | 46 | 74 |
| Median | 65 | 68 | 42 | 71 |
| Upper Quartile | 89 | 94 | 58 | 93 |
| Lower Quartile | 45 | 48 | 31 | 53 |
| Standard Deviation | 31 | 31 | 21 | 27 |
| *Percentiles* | | | | |
| 99 | 144 | 148 | 107 | 137 |
| 90 | 114 | 114 | 75 | 112 |
| 80 | 96 | 99 | 63 | 98 |
| 70 | 83 | 89 | 54 | 88 |
| 60 | 73 | 79 | 47 | 79 |
| 50 | 65 | 68 | 42 | 71 |
| 40 | 57 | 60 | 38 | 64 |
| 30 | 50 | 52 | 34 | 57 |
| 20 | 40 | 43 | 28 | 50 |
| 10 | 31 | 32 | 22 | 40 |
| 1 | 12 | 12 | 10 | 22 |
| Reliability Coefficients | .93 | .95 | .88 | .85 |

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* For data on forms X and Y see Chapter VI, L. W. Miller, "An Experimental Study of the Iowa Placement Examinations." Iowa Studies in Education, Vol. 5, No. 6.

It will be seen from the accompanying data that these tests present forms of comparable difficulty and of high reliability. Their validity for the prediction of first semester achievement is attested to by prediction correlations which may reach .80 for unselected groups. Reports from all sections of the country have shown these tests to be highly efficient. Furthermore the training tests have been widely used as final check-up examinations at the end of the first year French and Spanish.

### SOME EXAMPLES OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESEARCH UTILIZING THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE APTITUDE AND TRAINING EXAMINATIONS[1]

*Young, Tharp* and others have studied student achievement under a variety of instructional conditions by means of repeated measurements with the Training examinations. Relatively little of the actual measurement work is reported in the literature, because so much of it has become a matter of course with most instructors. However, many departments are studying the relative achievement of good and poor students, rates and amounts of progress under varying conditions, and other problems peculiar to their own situations by means of continued measurement with comparable forms of the *Iowa Placement Examinations.*

There are several avenues of approach to the problem of standards of achievement. The first one that suggests itself is the determination of what constitutes a desirable level of achievement in a given subject matter. When measured objectively it then becomes relatively easy to determine whether or not a student has achieved satisfactorily. This procedure was followed in an experiment in individualized instruction in French by *Feder.* Setting an objectively defined standard led to a marked increase in the achievement of the experimental group.

Much has appeared in the literature on the subject of ability sectioning. Among the best known and most carefully controlled studies have been those in the foreign languages. *Tharp* concluded that the foreign language aptitude and training tests are so reliable as to correctly place seven or eight out of every ten students and miss the other two or three by not more than one place.

There are a number of studies which point to the superiority of the specific placement examination over a generalized intelligence test, in predicting subject matter achievement. *Feder* found the Foreign Language Aptitude test to be superior to several other pre-instructional tests in the prediction of achievement of first year French. *Hansen,* in an analytical study of the *Iowa Placement Examinations* concluded that (1) the placement examinations are superior to intelligence tests for predictive purposes, (2) aptitude in one subject may or may not imply aptitude in another, depending upon the ability factors common to all of them, and (3) that the placement tests are most effective in the subject for which they are designed.

For the purpose of diagnosis and direction of remedial work the *Iowa Placement Examinations* have repeatedly demonstrated their usefulness. *Young and Vander Beke* found the *French Training* test effective in determining weak spots in students' previous training and directly indicative of the areas needing a remedial drill. The extent to which a class, as a whole, fails to understand certain desirable concepts, thereby requiring remedial work, may likewise be revealed through clearcut examination results.

In studying the effects of various instructional techniques *Tharp and Murray, Young and Vander Beke, Steep, Struble,* and *Young and Daus* have reported the effectiveness of teaching foreign languages by means of the reading method. By comparing the performance of students thus instructed with that of students learning under the traditional method, significant gains in comprehension ability were noted for the former. However, the marked emphasis on reading is reflected in lower achievement in grammar. In these experiments the training series were used to evaluate achievement. A recent study at the University of Iowa found that first year Spanish students just completing the study of the subjunctive showed better mastery of it than did second year students. Other results suggest that in the interests of economy and efficiency, study of the subjunctive may well be eliminated from the first year course. The second year students show their greatest gains in reading comprehension ability.

These are but a very few of the many experimental studies which have been made possible by the reliable and valid measurements furnished by the aptitude and achievement examinations of the *Iowa Placement Examination* series. Objectivity of results, ease of scoring, and cumulative norms are features of the four forms of the series now available. The technical features of these examinations are so well grounded as to make them dependable instruments for teachers, administrators and experimenters in studying ways and means of making instruction most meaningful for every student.

## NOTE

1. Because the problems of an institution are somewhat individual it is suggested that the cooperation of the local departments of psychology and education be secured in planning services, uses, and experimental studies with the examinations. More definite suggestions may also be secured by addressing the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

**The titles and location of the studies referred to in this bulletin are available in a bibliography on the Iowa Placement Examinations, which may be secured on request from the Bureau.**

## MODERN LANGUAGE TESTS AND TEST BUILDING

**[Courtesy of Service Bureau for Modern Language Teachers, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Dr. Minnie M. Miller, Director.]**

**A standard test should be (1) valid, i.e., it must measure what it purports to measure; (2) reliable, giving consistent results with a minimum of error in different groups and at different times; (3) comprehensive enough to furnish comparable measures at different stages of achievement; (4) administratively feasible; i.e., reasonable in cost and in length of time required, entirely objective and easy to give and to grade. A standard test is one given to various schools and to a sufficient number of pupils to secure a basis for comparison. It follows necessarily that such a test is not prepared with any one class or any given test in view. While the informal test is of high value in learning whether or not the pupils have sufficiently mastered a certain unit, and while the standard test should not entirely replace the examination as the basis of grading, teachers find the following values in standard tests: (1) they are objective and free from any possibility of personal prejudice; (2) they furnish opportunity for a teacher to compare her work with that of other teachers; (3) they aid in setting up standards for the amount of work to be covered during a semester or year.**

**The material to be tested in modern languages may be grouped under the following heads: (1) a vocabulary test, (2) a silent reading or comprehension test, (3) a grammar test, (4) a test on information concerning the country whose language is studied, (5) an aural comprehension test. Tests on the use and forms of verbs may be included with grammar, and idioms may well form part of the vocabulary test. Rules of grammar should not be included, as it is the application, not the rule, which is important. A passage for translation from the foreign language into English is difficult to grade objectively and, furthermore, tends to encourage the student to translate rather than to read for thought content, a process measured by the silent reading test. Free composition in the foreign language is preferable to translation from English into the other language but is difficult to score objectively.**

**Several aural comprehension tests have been developed. Miss Baker**

(p. 209) has a pronunciation test, consisting of matching forms: e. g., the word *désirer* in French occurs in one column and the student is to find the word in another column having the same vowel sound as the *er* in *désirer*, which is, in this case, *ces*. In another test the student is asked to write the one word in a list of five which does not contain a certain sound: e.g., (French) *public* from the list containing *goût, où, vous, public, foule*. The State University of Iowa has an oral pronunciation test in which the student writes the phonetic symbol for the sound contained in each of five words: e. g. (3) in *trouver, parer, nez, rester, avez, couper*. In other aural comprehension tests the student is asked to check the correct answer to a question read in the foreign language by the teacher.

Tests on civilization represent another development. The Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia has printed life and culture tests for both French and Spanish classes. More complete material on French civilization is found in the *Outlines and Tests on French Civilization* (Crofts) by Minnie M. Miller and J. R. Nielson. Professor Tharp has also developed a civilization test for French students.

The types of questions found in standard tests in modern foreign languages are: (1) multiple choice, (2) true-false, (3) matching, (4) completion, (5) ordinary questions to be answered by a few words. Multiple-choice questions are those in which three, four, or five choices are given and the student selects the correct one: e. g., (Spanish) *olor*: 1. color 2. other 3. odor 4. oil. This type of question is especially adapted to vocabulary but may be used for grammar or cultural questions. An excellent form of the multiple-choice test is one given entirely in the foreign language, e. g., (Spanish) *El azúcar es*: 1. *amargo* 2. *dulce* 3. *negro* 4. *peligroso*. True-false questions are prepared in statement form for the student to indicate the correctness or error by a + or − sign. The arrangement of the items should be a random one. The true-false type may be answered in the least amount of time, while the completion type of question takes the longest time. True-false questions are adapted to grammatical and cultural material, although, since the possibility of guessing always exists, they are probably the least satisfactory of the various types. The matching type is well adapted to the study of synonyms or antonyms: e. g., a numbered list of words is given and opposite is another list in which some of the words are synonyms of those in the first group. Special groups of words can also be studied in this way: e. g., in one column may be such words as (French) *rose, cheval*, etc., and, in the opposite column, such words as *fleur, animal*, etc., arranged in varying order. The student will match the particular word with its general class.

The completion type of question is well adapted to the grammar division. The test may give an English sentence with its translation, except for one word: e. g., (French) "He gives them the apples." *Il . . . donne les pommes.* The student is to write the word *leur* in the space following the statement. This is the most difficult type since it demands memory, not merely recognition. However, it tests the student's knowledge accurately. Another variety of the completion test is one which asks the student to write on the dotted line the correct form of the word in parentheses: e. g., (French) (*petit*) *Marie est très* . . . Knowledge of verb forms may also be tested in this way. The test states "he will have" and the student (French) writes on the dotted line: *il aura.* Another form requires the rewriting of the sentence, changing all the nouns to pronouns. This is a valuable exercise but is difficult to score as it involves two factors: knowledge of the pronoun and knowledge of its position. Some tests give sentences containing one error each, and the student must underline the error and write the correct form on the dotted line. Such tests are of doubtful value since they force the student to focus his attention on an incorrect sentence. The completion type is also adapted to the vocabulary test from English to the foreign language, but should be used sparingly, as there is always danger that one question will have several correct answers. It is best adapted to the translation of single words, as "Thursday" . . . When the ordinary question is used, it should theoretically be answerable only "yes" or "no," or by a single word, if the test is to be scored by a key. This type is especially adapted to the reading test. The question is usually written in the foreign language, and the answer is to be given in English. Thus the possibility of the key to the answer being given in the question is avoided. This type of question is not advisable for any division except the silent reading test, and then it should be carefully worded to secure objective results.

Any competent teacher of a foreign language may make his own objective test. While the time taken to prepare the test is much longer than for the old-type test, the time for grading is much reduced. Tests may be mimeographed. If the scored papers are not returned to the pupils, the tests may frequently be used again. The following suggestions are offered: (1) divide the examination into its various parts: grammar, reading, etc. and determine how many points will be given for each part: (2) include enough questions to keep students busy during the allotted time (100 questions will usually last somewhat less than an hour); (3) write directions on the test paper and give samples to show what should be done, as no student should ask questions during the test period; (4) form questions as briefly as possible and limit answers to a number, a sign, or one word (with possible exception of the reading test); (5) check each question, especially in the vocabulary, to see that no question is ambiguous and can be answered in several ways. The teacher should study the questions carefully to see that he has included the important principles and not given emphasis to some unimportant or technical point.

Teachers will find it helpful to outline for themselves the various principles of grammar which they expect the class to master. In the reading test the teacher should be sure that, wherever there are several ways of wording an answer, all the possibilities are put into the key, especially if the test is graded by one not proficient in the foreign language. For the preparation of the vocabulary the teacher is referred to the word books and idiom lists (French, Spanish, German) published by Macmillan in connection with the Modern Foreign Language Study. Other good books are the *Basic French Vocabulary* (Holt) by J. B. Tharp and a *Basic List of Spanish Words and Idioms* (University of Chicago Press) by H. Keniston. The following pamphlets may help the teacher to decide what material to include in tests: (1) *A Two-Year Course in Spanish with Suggestions for a Third Year,* University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill; (2) *A Four-Year Course in French for High Schools,* University of Wisconsin, Madison (similar courses for Spanish and German); (3) *Tentative Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages,* University of the State of New York, Albany.

Scoring keys, cut from cardboard to fit the test, provide a quick and efficient method of grading objective tests. A teacher may easily prepare his own scoring key. Standardized tests usually furnish a prepared key and indicate the proper method of interpreting the scores. Median scores are given to show the numerical score which was exceeded by fifty per cent of those taking the test. Results may be interpreted by reducing the numerical score according to the per cent allowed for each grade.

Below is given a list of available tests in modern foreign languages:

*American Council Alpha and Beta French Test. Alpha and Beta Spanish Test. Alpha German Test.* The Alpha tests are for high schools and colleges and the Beta tests are for Junior and senior high schools. There is also a French grammar test and a Luria-Orleans Language Prognosis test. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. About six cents each.

*American Council Alpha French Test. Aural Comprehension.* $4.20 per 100. Specimen set, twenty-five cents. Also *Foreign Language Prognosis Test* by Symonds. $7.35 per 100. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Broom, M. E. and Brown, L. P. *A Silent Reading Test in French.* Standardized reading test of twenty paragraphs of varying difficulty. Sixty cents per twenty-five tests. Specimen set, twenty-five cents. California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Hollywood, California.

*Columbia Research Bureau Tests.* French, Spanish, and German. All tests by Ben D. Wood and others. About six cents each. World Book Company. There is also an aural French test.

*Cooperative Tests in French, Spanish, and German.* Junior, elementary, and advanced form. There is also a French and a Spanish reading test. About six cents each. Cooperative Test Service of the American Council on Education, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York.

Espinosa, A. M. and Kelley, T. L. Stanford Spanish Tests, Forms A and B. Eighty cents for 25 copies. Sample set, twenty-five cents. *Stanford University Press,* California.

*Every-Pupil Tests.* First and Second Year French, First and Second Year Spanish, First Year German. Test on Spanish and Spanish-American Life and Culture. 100 questions in English on geography, history, art, literature, science, customs, etc. Bulletins give summaries of comparative results on tests. Package of twenty-five tests, sixty cents, postpaid. Bureau of Educational Measurements, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia.

Ford-Hicks *French Grammar Tests.* Fifty cents per dozen. Sample set, twenty cents. J. M. Dent and Sons, 224 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Harlow Publishing Company, Oklahoma City, First and Second Year Tests in Spanish. First Year French. Six six-week unit subtests and two semester subtests. Twenty-five copies of one test, three cents each.

*Indiana State High School Tests.* French and German. New forms published each year. Mimeographed. First and second year. 2 cents each. Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

*Iowa French Training, Spanish Training, and Foreign Language Aptitude Tests.* $3.50 per 100. Extension Division, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Lundeberg, O. K. and Tharp, J. B. *Audition Test in French.* $2.00 per 100. Sample set, ten cents. Ohio State University, Columbus.

Miller, Minnie M. and Nielson, J. R. *Outlines and Tests on French Civilization.* Eighty cents. F. S. Crofts, 101 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

*New York State Board of Regents Tests.* French and Spanish. Reproductions of past tests. Ten cents per copy. Globe Publishing Company, 175 Fifth Avenue, New York.

*Ohio Scholarship Tests.* First and Second Year French and Spanish.

Every-Pupil Tests. New forms each April. Two cents each. State Department of Education. Columbus, Ohio.

Pickard, L. and Odell, C. W. *First Year French.* Multiple-Purpose Objective Tests in high school subjects. There is a similar test in first and second year Spanish.

Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts. *French Comprehensive Test.* For use by first, second, or third year. Six cents per copy.

Twigg, Alice. *Harvard Tests in French Vocabulary.* Package of thirty tests, forty-eight cents. Ginn and Company, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York.

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# WARTIME DEVELOPMENTS IN MODERN-LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT TESTING

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If the questionnaire submitted to foreign-language teachers by the Modern Foreign Language Study in 1925–1926 were sent out again today, it is doubtful if reading would again be rated as the central, paramount objective by as large a number as approved the recommendations of the Coleman Report.[1] Since 1925 even the size of the world has changed for all practical purposes. Today, the most distant point on the globe is only 60 hours from home by fast airplane. In 1925 most teachers listened to radio programs, if at all, only through headphones, and the static from local stations was often as great as that accompanying modern broadcasts from the South Pole. Today, the pronouncements of dictators, and the coronation or abdication of kings, can be heard in almost every home in America with greater clarity than local broadcasts in 1925. To maintain that foreign-language teaching can be functional if guided by recommendations suited to an entirely different set of conditions, however recent, would not be an unusual, but certainly a doubtfully sane reaction of the teaching profession.

Recent articles in this and other foreign-language publications give evidence of a growing realization that to serve present and very obvious future needs, modern foreign-language teaching must stress the aural-oral abilities more than ever before.[2] The short-wave radio is increasingly inspiring a popular demand for ability to understand the spoken language, while growing American participation in world affairs is already creating a similar, if not greater, demand for ability actually to speak the foreign tongue. To insist that the adoption of ability to understand and speak the language should henceforth be the central and paramount objective of modern foreign-language teaching in elementary and secondary schools, and in lower division college classes, by no means implies that reading and writing need be thrown into discard. The proposal represents only a marked shift in primary emphasis—a putting of first things first, not from the viewpoint of method or subject-matter, but from the viewpoint of *life needs outside the school.*

Although recent textbooks and courses of study show a considerable reorientation toward the aural-oral objective, the greatest progress to date had been made in the Army language and area schools. Considering the crucial language needs of trainees preparing for service in foreign lands, the military authorities here, as elsewhere, wisely insist on "putting first things first." The primary concern is ability to understand the spoken language and to speak the foreign tongue. In elementary and intermediate courses, reading and writing are introduced, if at all, only in the service of these paramount abilities. The urgency of the world situation does not permit of erudite theorizing in English about the grammatical structure of the language for two years before attempting to converse or to understand telephone conversations.

Moreover, the language needs of the military are in certain respects fairly specific. To a considerable extent they resemble, at the elementary level, the routine language needs of an American who is preparing himself for independent travel on business abroad. The primary concern is with securing information, giving directions or requests for services, and communicating information intelligibly. In keeping with the principle of "first things first," the less essential variations and subtleties of parlor-cultured conversation are reserved for more advanced groups.

To date, the program has reached the evaluation stage. As consultant in tests and measurements to the language and area schools at Stanford, the writer has been faced with the task of planning tests to measure progress in the new-type programs. To be practical for use with relatively large groups of trainees, the progress tests have to conform to certain specifications:

1. They must measure levels of aural-oral *readiness* in terms that can be translated into practical terms.

2. They must be scorable by machine as far as possible in order to economize on labor costs.

3. They must not require examinees from elementary and intermediate classes either to read or write the foreign language. (Tests that require ability to read and write the language would obviously be as much tests of reading comprehension or composition as of aural comprehension or oral fluency, and hence almost impossible to interpret accurately.)

4. The nature of the individual test items should be such as to provide specific, recognizable evidence of the examinee's *readiness to perform in a life-situation* where lack of ability to understand and speak the language extemporaneously might be a serious handicap to safety and comfort, or to the effective execution of military responsibilities.

5. The items of the text must be graded or scaled in difficulty to

provide a kind of ladder by which the level, quality, and scope or range of the examinee's ability in language can be gauged.

6. Scores on the measurement scale must be interpreted in terms of "performance norms" or statements of what an examinee who reaches a certain point on the scale can specifically be expected to *do* with the foreign language in real life communication situations.

7. The tests must not be guilty of the "correlation fallacy," the common delusion that a certain level of ability on a pencil-and-paper test of vocabulary, grammar, or reading comprehension can automatically be interpreted to mean a corresponding level of ability to understand the spoken language, or to speak the language fluently. This specification obviously invalidates the use of practically all existing standardized language tests for purposes of measuring aural-comprehension and oral-fluency.

8. They must permit of a uniform, standardized administration,—for example, from recorded discs on tone-control talking machines.

The measurement of ability in aural comprehension and discrimination in language usage presented few difficulties. Following are examples of testing techniques that yield responses readily scorable by machine, that permit of standardized administration by means of recordings broadcast via loudspeakers, and that do not require examinees to read or write the foreign language.

### *Aural Comprehension*

The examiner will read a series of statements in Spanish to which the English answers can be found among the numbered groups of expressions on your examination sheet. After the examiner has read statement number 2 *twice,* put an ╳ in the square opposite the correct English answer in group 2, and so forth. For example:

The examiner reads the following twice.

0. *¿Cuántos días hay en una semana?*
*¿Cuántos días hay en una semana?*

On your own examination paper, put an ╳ in the box before the correct English answer.

0. ☐ a. 365
☐ b. 30
☒ c. 7
☐ d. 100

(All multiple choice answers to be in English on Examination sheets.)

### *Language Usage*

The examiner will make a statement in two different ways, a right way and a wrong way. As soon as the examiner has finished speaking, put an ╳ in the box *before* the number of the exercise that shows whether the first way (labeled a) or the second way (labeled b) is the correct one.

For example:

The examiner will make the following statement in two ways, labeled a and b.

0. a. Es *muy buen tiempo hoy.*
b. HACE *muy buen tiempo hoy.*

On your examination paper, put an X in the box labeled b to show that statement b in group number 0 is correct.

0. ☐ a.
☒ b.

More than 2-response items are invalid for dictation in this type of aural test because of the excessive strain they place upon the examinee's auditory memory. Two-response items more nearly correspond to normal life-situations in the degree of auditory memory involved, but must be corrected for possible guessing. Hence a minimum of 50 items are usually required to permit of the application of correction formulas.

Needless to say, a score on an aural-comprehension test would be only of intra-mural academic interest if it failed to provide an answer to the question: "How well can the examinee understand literate native speakers of the language in real-life situations?" Consequently, the test must be tried out on an adequate number of experimental cases whose varying abilities are already known from outside sources. The scores made by this group can then be translated into "norms of performance," as illustrated below. Obviously, the norms are formulated primarily in terms of abilities that are of value to servicemen abroad. An aural comprehension test designed to measure the comprehension of a waiter applying for a position in a first-class cosmopolitan restaurant might be defined in very different terms, since participation in eloquent conversational repartee with patrons might as often result in dismissal as in promotion.

*Performance scale for measuring aural-comprehension*

| *Score Norms* | |
|---|---|
| 0. | Cannot understand the spoken language. |
| 1–5 | Can catch a word here and there and occasionally guess the general meaning through inference. |
| 6–10 | Can understand the ordinary questions and answers relating to the *routine* transactions involved in independent travel abroad. |
| 11–15 | Can understand ordinary conversation on common, non-technical topics, with the aid of occasional repetition or paraphrastic restatements. |
| 16–20 | Can understand popular radio talks, talking-pictures, ordinary telephone conversations, and minor dialectal variations without obvious difficulty. |

### *The Measurement of Oral Fluency*

As compared with the measurement of aural-comprehension, described in the first installment of this report, the testing of oral fluency presented unusual problems. The following paragraphs analyze the difficulties besetting the construction and administration of valid and reliable oral-fluency tests, and discuss the theory of fluency testing in terms of a sample, partially standardized scale designed for Army trainees enrolled in the Stanford Language Area Schools.

*Construction of oral-fluency tests:*

1. It is obvious that an examination requiring the examinee to read or write the foreign language would be invalid as an oral-fluency test. *It simply cannot be taken for granted that ability to express oneself in writing is correlated with a like ability to speak the language extemporaneously.* Ability in the "silent" uses of language probably correlates significantly with *potential* ability to speak it, but pencil-and-paper tests do not measure the factor of *oral readiness* which is the very basis of fluency. This fact automatically places the oral-fluency scale in the category of individual performance tests, like the Simon-Binet Intelligence Test, that permit of the examination of only one candidate at a time.

2. Since individual performance tests are usually very time consuming, the oral-fluency examinations must be long enough to allow the candidate to demonstrate his ability, yet short enough to be practical for use with a relatively large number of examinees.

This fact suggests the desirability of scaling the rungs of the test ladder in terms of "plateaus" consisting of groups of three items of equal difficulty as determined by actual tryouts on an adequate number of cases. It can then be assumed that if the examinee fails to score on three successive items, he has reached his level of performance, and need not be examined further. This device is effective in preventing the useless expenditure of time on examinees who would obviously not score on the more difficult sections of the test. Less than five minutes, however, are seldom adequate for the individual measurement of oral fluency on the part of intermediate and advanced students.

Since an average of five minutes per examinee requires a considerable testing time when large groups are involved, it is necessary to space the examinations over a period of four or five days, depending upon the number of competent examiners available. Such spacing of examinations is feasible without serious danger of invalidating the test, for it can reasonably be assumed that true oral fluency does not increase appreciably in five or even ten days. Wherever such spacing is attempted, however, four or five equated forms of the test must be available for alternate administration to prevent coaching of prospective examinees by those who have already taken the examination.

3. Inasmuch as an oral-fluency test is only of academic interest unless its scores can be translated into meaningful life-terms, it is important to select test items that measure both the quality and range of the examinee's *ability to perform in very specific real-life situations.* For purposes of administrative convenience and the subsequent interpretation of test-data, it is helpful to think of such essential areas of language fluency as the following:

Ability to secure essential information, i.e., *to ask questions.*

Ability to communicate essential information solicited in the foreign language—i.e., *to answer questions.*

Ability to give essential directions, requests for services, and polite commands.

Within each of these areas, scope and range of performance can be measured through the use of items that gradually increase in vocabulary and syntactical range, starting with words and constructions of high frequency of occurrence, to those of relatively low frequency. This validation of the vocabulary and syntactical content of the test items, however, is not the starting point in the building of the test. In other words, the items are not written to illustrate vocabulary and constructions of high or low frequency, but to test the candidate's *readiness* to perform in varying extra-curricular situations that make different demands upon the individual's oral resources in the language. Those situations that involve words and constructions of relatively low frequency of occurrence are naturally reserved for the more difficult or higher sections of the scale, and can thus be interpreted to give an indication of the scope of the examinee's readiness to perform in language.

*Validation:*

Both the reliability of the scale and its validity can be computed by conventional statistical methods. In order to provide norms that can be translated into operational terms, however, the test must be administered to a considerable number of bilingual subjects whose oral efficiency in real life situations is already known from outside evidence, such as types of professional employment abroad, etc. The scores made by these bilingual subjects can then be used to provide norms that can be interpreted in terms of quality and range of ability to speak the language in actual life.

*Administration:*

1. Wherever possible, the oral-fluency test should be given by educated examiners who have a first-hand acquaintance with the foreign language by virtue of recent residence abroad. Non-native examiners should guard against the danger of accepting as correct only the language stereotypes found in dogmatic textbooks on grammar, or among a small coterie of experts who make their living exclusively through language, and are therefore not always good examples of normal current usage.

2. If ratings assigned by different examiners are to be comparable, the fluency test must be administered only by those who are thoroughly familiar with the scale values on the scoring key, and with the technique of giving the test. Such competence is difficult to attain merely from reading or memorizing directions. No one should expect to secure a valid or reliable score without having had practice in administering the test to four or more trial cases under supervision in circumstances enabling him to compare his experimental ratings with those of skilled examiners who have an expert command of the language. Phonographic recordings of different types of performance on the fluency test can be used for practice, and the trial ratings compared with those given for the recorded performances by experienced examiners.

3. The tests should be given *privately* in quiet but comfortable and light, pleasant surroundings.

4. The deportment of the examiner should suggest cordial, but businesslike informality. The complete absence of stereotyped mannerisms suggestive of "executive frigidity" or "pompous austerity" will help set the examinee at ease, and thus enable him to do his best. Examinees that show signs of tenseness or nervousness should be given time to get adjusted to the testing situation and environment before official testing starts. If the examinee is not already acquainted with the examiner, a few minutes of informal conversation in English (for elementary students) or the foreign language (for the intermediate and advanced students) relative to the candidate's interest in Spanish, experiences in studying the language, etc., may precede the formal testing.

Before beginning the formal testing, the examiner should try the candidate out on three or four simple practice items, and give whatever advice or encouragement is necessary to enable the examinee to perform to advantage: *e.g.*, "Try to answer in a complete sentence each time." "Can you speak a little louder?" This tryout is especially important if the examination is to be recorded, or if the scoring is to be done by someone other than the examiner.

On the basis of the candidate's reactions on the trial items, the skilled examiner can ***start at the point on the scale which in his judgment is only slightly below the examinee's level of ability.*** This procedure makes for considerable economy in testing time. Obviously, when the examiner's judgment is in error, it will be necessary to work backwards on the scale temporarily to the point where the candidate's confidence is restored.

5. Once official testing starts, the time-limits should be rigorously observed. It is the examiner's responsibility to see to it that the candidate does not spend too much time on any one test item. After the time-limit for the item has expired, the examiner should simply say: "Very well, let's go on to the next one."

6. Except for necessary reminders that the examinee respond in complete sentences, or speak a little louder, all coaching, prodding, and giving of suggestive clues or hints must obviously be avoided. So also should comments regarding the quality of the candidate's responses. The candidate should not be able to tell from the examiner's reactions or expressions whether his response is excellent or poor. If the candidate's nervous discomfort is so great, however, that he feels like giving up, the examiner may add a brief word of encouragement, provided that he has reason to believe that the examinee underestimates himself. These exhortations must obviously be confined to such remarks as the following in order to avoid the danger of invalidating the testing procedure or time limits:

"Just do the best you can. No one is expected to answer every question perfectly. Now let's try this one."

If the examinee scores 0 on three successive items on the test, however, he should be regarded as having reached his level on the scale, and the examiner should proceed at once to item No. 1 on the next part of the examination. This procedure obviously requires that the examination be a "ladder test," which increases in difficulty with every successive group of three items, as explained above under ***Construction of Oral-fluency tests.***

7. Scoring of responses should not be done within the examinee's range of vision, for this procedure tends to "freeze" the candidate, to distract him, or to cause self-consciousness to handicap his performance. If the test is administered by a recorded voice from a loud-speaker or tone-controlled talking machine, the candidate may be seated facing the reproducing instrument, and the scorer at a desk closely behind him, or at his side, separated by a cloth screen.

If the test is not administered by machine, it is desirable to have one examiner administer the test, and a concealed scorer rate the responses.

A complete recording of the examinee's responses naturally makes possible a more reliable scoring of the examination from mechanical play-backs at a later time. Since relatively inexpensive paper discs are serviceable for this purpose, the cost of this procedure is not too great to permit of its use in fluency examinations designed for advanced students in public secondary schools.

8. The administration of the test can be greatly facilitated by informing the prospective examinees, as far as possible in advance, concerning the exact nature of the examination, and the best ways to score to advantage. Wherever practicable, the instructor may administer sample oral-fluency tests informally in class, using items that parallel, but do not duplicate, those used in the official examination. This practice will help prospective examinees feel at ease during the actual examination.

The sample test, with directions for scoring and interpreting results is reproduced below. The information obtained from the questionnaire will be of value to the examiner in validating the test, and in estimating the point on the scale where testing of the examinee should begin.

### *Aural-Oral Proficiency Test In Spanish*

Name .............................. Date of Birth ........................
(Last name first) (Month Day Year)
Sex ................................ Date of examination ................
(M. or F.)

Draw a circle around the *nearest number of semesters* of Spanish taken in school:
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 Over 12

Check the following statements with an ✕ only if they hold true for you:

☐ 1. One or more members of my family often speak Spanish at home.
☐ 2. I have lived or traveled in a Spanish-speaking country for more than three months.
☐ 3. I have earned money through work requiring me to speak and understand Spanish.
☐ 4. I sometimes speak Spanish with friends.
From actual experience in Speaking Spanish, I am certain that
☐ 5. No one could tell my Spanish apart from that of a Spanish-speaking native.
☐ 6. A Spanish-speaking native would understand me without difficulty.
☐ 7. A Spanish-speaking native could easily tell that Spanish is not my mother tongue.
☐ 8. I can speak enough Spanish to get around comfortably in a Spanish-speaking country without the help of an interpreter.
☐ 9. It is hard for me to understand Spanish-speaking natives unless they speak slowly and distinctly.

Do not write below this line

---

**Oral-Fluency Rating**

| | Scope | Quality |
|---|---|---|
| Part I Securing services | B | 2.0 |
| Part II Asking for information | B | 1.9 |
| Part III Giving information | B | 2.4 |
| *Median oral-fluency rating | B | 2.0 |

* Record, separately for scope and quality, the rating that falls between the highest and lowest ratings on the three parts.

| *Scope of Oral Performance* | *Quality of Oral Performance* |
|---|---|

The examinee can speak Spanish within the limits checked in the left-hand column with the degree of fluency checked in the column to the right.

( ) A. Can make known only a few essential wants in set phrases or sentences.

(X) B. Can give and secure the routine information required in independent travel abroad.

( ) C. Can discuss the common topics and interests of daily life extemporaneously.

( ) D. Can converse extemporaneously on any topic within the range of his knowledge or experience.

( ) 0. *Unintelligible or no response*
A literate native would not understand what the speaker is saying, or would be *confused* or *misled.*

( ) 1. *Partially intelligible*
A literate native might be able to *guess* what the speaker is *trying* to say. The response is either incomplete, or exceedingly hard to understand because of poor proununciation or usage.

(X) 2. *Intelligible but labored*
A literate native would understand what the speaker is saying, but would be conscious of his efforts in speaking the language. The delivery is hesitating, or regressive, but does not contain amusing or misleading errors in pronunciation or usage.

( ) 3. *Readily intelligible*
A literate native would readily understand what the speaker is saying, and would not be able to identify the speaker's particular foreign nationality.

## ORAL-FLUENCY TEST

### PART I: SECURING SERVICES

### *Directions to test administrators*

Try out the examinee informally on the following items. Make sure that he understands that he is to speak in complete sentences, yet as directly as possible:

"How would you tell a Spanish-speaking native *to please speak in English? to give you the name of that building across the street?*"

Start the examination at a point that is within the examinee's comfortable reach. Score each response with an X in the proper column according to the *Directions for Scoring* below. (See also the definitions corresponding to the numbered columns in *Quality of Performance* scale above.)

If the test is not given by means of recordings, administer only *one* test item in each group of three, unless the examinee misses it. In the latter case, administer the remaining items in the triad. In any case, do not wait more than 15 seconds for any reply. If the examinee cannot phrase an answer within fifteen seconds after hearing the question, go on to another item saying: "Very well; now let's try this one." Stop the examination at the point where the examinee misses *three items in succession*, and go on to the next part.

### *Directions to examinees*

### (May be recorded on discs)

Since this is a test to measure how well people can talk Spanish, try to speak in complete sentences, but as directly as possible. Do *not* try to translate, but to get the *idea* across in any form of Spanish that you consider correct and easily understandable. Always try to say something, even if you must guess.

Now imagine yourself talking to a Spanish-speaking native abroad. How would *you tell him to do* the following things? Start answering as soon as you have heard the directions for number one. Here it is:

**Number one:** How would you tell a Spanish-speaking native

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | 1. TO SPEAK ENGLISH? |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | 2. *to open the window?* |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | 3. to close the door? |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | 4. TO COME IN? |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | 5. *to wait here?* |
| | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | ☐ | 6. to get a doctor? |
| B | ☒ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 7. TO TAKE YOU TO THE MILITARY HOSPITAL? |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | 8. *to come back at three this afternoon?* |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | 9. to let you have a room with bath? |
| | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | ☐ | 10. TO LET YOU KNOW IN THE MORNING? |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | 11. *to show you his passport?* |
| | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ | ☐ | 12. to charge a ten-dollar bill? |

"From here on the test items will be given twice. Answer as soon as you have heard the items repeated. *Number thirteen:* How would you tell a Spanish-speaking native

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| C | (×) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 13. TO ASK HIS WIFE IF SHE WOULD LIKE TO GO ALONG? |
| | (×) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 14. *to ask the hotel clerk to hold a room for you?* |
| | (×) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 15. to find out how long ago the train left? |

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| D | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 16. TO LOOK FOR SOMEONE WHO CAN SPEAK GERMAN AND FRENCH? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 17. *to find out how long Mr. Garcia has been working here?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 18. to be careful if he doesn't want someone to fall and hurt himself. |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 1 | 2 + | 5 + | 4 = | S. T.<br>12 | Add horizontally to get *sum total* in columns 0, 1, 2, 3; up to point where examinee misses three items in succession. 1 ÷ 12. |
| (b) | | ×1 | ×2 | ×3 | | Multiply each entry in (a) to get (c); |
| (c) | | 2 + | 10 + | 12 = | 24 | add sum of products horizontally, and then |
| | | | | | ÷ 12 | divide sum in (c) by S.T. in (a) to get |
| | | | | | 2.0 | QUALITY QUOTIENT. |
| SCOPE OF PERFORMANCE | | | | | B | Indicate letter (A, B, C, D) corresponding to highest point on scale reached with a rating of 1 or better. |

## PART II: ASKING FOR INFORMATION

### *Directions to test administrators*

Same as for Part I. Try out the examinee informally on the following items, with a view to starting the test at a point that is within his comfortable reach:

How would you ask a Spanish-speaking native *what his name is? How long he has been living here?*

### *Directions to examinees*

(Recorded on disc)

If you were with a Spanish-speaking native who could not understand English, how would you *ask* him for the following information? Ask the question in any way that you think is correct and easily understandable. Guess, if you are not sure.

*Here is number one:*

How would you ask a Spanish speaking native

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 1. WHAT TIME IT IS? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 2. *Where the military hospital is?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 3. If he is Spanish? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 4. AT WHAT TIME THE TRAIN LEFT? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 5. *How much the tickets cost?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 6. On which street the Grand Hotel is? |
| B | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 7. IF HE HAS BEEN LIVING HERE LONG? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 8. *Whether he knows a good restaurant?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 9. Where one can buy American newspapers? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 10. IF HE WOULD LIKE TO HAVE DINNER WITH YOU? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 11. *If he knows a doctor named Ortega?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 12. If one is allowed to smoke here? |

From here on each test item will be given twice. Answer as soon as you have heard the item repeated. Here is *number thirteen:*

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| C | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 13. WHAT TIME HE EXPECTS YOU TO MEET HIM? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 14. *If it will be necessary for you to bring your passport with you?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 15. If anyone phoned regarding the vacant apartment? |
| D | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 16. WHAT HE WOULD ADVISE YOU TO DO IF THE TRAIN SHOULD BE DELAYED? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 17. *What he thinks of the plan to build a highway over the mountains?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 18. What made him think that you had just come from Seville? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 19. WHETHER THE OLDER OR THE YOUNGER DAUGHTER WENT TO SCHOOL IN MADRID? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 20. *If it wouldn't be best to wait for Mr. and Mrs. Moreno to return?* |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | | + | + | = | S. T. | Add horizontally to get *sum total* in columns 0, 1, 2, 3; up to point where examinee misses three items in succession. |
| (b) | | ×1 | ×2 | ×3 | | Multiply each entry in (a) to get (c); |
| (c) | | + | + | = | | add sum of products horizontally, and then |
| | | | | | ÷ | divide sum in (c) by S. T. in (a) to get |
| | | | | | | QUALITY QUOTIENT. |
| SCOPE OF PERFORMANCE | | | | | | Indicate letter (A, B, C, D) corresponding to highest point on scale reached with a rating of 1 or better. |

## PART III. GIVING INFORMATION

### *Directions to test administrators*

Same as for Part I. Try out the examinee informally on the following questions with a view to starting the examination at a point that is within his comfortable reach:

*¿Cómo se llama Ud?*
*¿Ha viajado Ud. alguna vez por España?*

### *Directions to examinees*

### (Recordable on discs)

Here is a test of ability to answer questions in Spanish. Each Spanish question will be asked *twice.* As soon as you have heard the question repeated, *answer it in a complete sentence in Spanish, but as directly as possible.* Always try to say something, even if you have to guess at the question or answer. Do not be surprised if the voices on the record change.

| *Scope* | *Quality* 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 1. ¿ES UD. ESPAÑOL? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 2. *¿Dónde vive Ud?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 3. ¿Habla Ud. italiano? |
| B | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 4. ¿QUÉ FIESTA SE CELEBRA EL PRIMERO DE ENERO? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 5. *¿Cuántos Estados hay en los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 6. ¿Qué día de la semana será mañana? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 7. ¿QUÉ AÑO ES ÉSTE? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 8. *¿En qué año se descubrió el Nuevo Mundo?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 9. ¿En qué ciudad se hallan los edificios más altos del mundo? |
| C | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 10. ¿SE PONE EL SOL EN EL OCCIDENTE O EN EL ORIENTE? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 11. *¿Sabe Ud. manejar un avión?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 12. Por regla general, ¿cuáles cuestan más en los hoteles: las habitaciones que dan a la calle, o las habitaciones interiores? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 13. ¿ACABA UD. DE VENIR A ESTE PAÍS? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 14. *¿Qué tal le gustaría viajar por Sud América?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 15. ¿A qué clase de tienda iría Ud. para comprar medicinas? |
| D | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 16. ¿A QUIÉN MANDARÍA UD. VENIR, SI ESTUVIERA MUY ENFERMO UN AMIGO SUYO? |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 17. *¿Cómo contestaría Ud. a una persona que le dijera—Le quedo muy agradecida?* |
| | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | ( ) | 18. Estando en un banquete, ¿qué diría Ud. a los demás convidados si Ud. deseara dejar la mesa antes de ellos? |

| | | | | | S. T. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | | + | + | = | | Add horizontally to get *sum total* in columns 0, 1, 2, 3; up to the point where the examinee misses three items in succession. |
| (b) | | ×1 | ×2 | ×3 | | Multiply each entry in (a) to get (c); |
| (c) | | + | + | = | | add sum of products horizontally, and then |
| | | | | | ÷ | divide sum in (c) by S. T. in (a) to get |
| | | | | | | QUALITY QUOTIENT. |
| SCOPE OF PERFORMANCE | | | | | | Indicate letter (A, B, C, D) corresponding to highest point on scale reached with a rating of 1 or better |

## *Directions for scoring*

1. Use the scoring system provided in the test only (1) after having tried it out experimentally on four or more practice cases, and (2) after having compared your ratings with those of trained examiners. (See *Administration, paragraph* 2.)

2. Do not score single word-answers or phrase-answers higher than 1 on the oral-fluency scale.

3. Score answers phrased in dependent clauses on the same basis as complete sentence answers. For example:

*Question:* ¿POR QUÉ CELEBRA MUCHA GENTE EL PRIMERO DE ENERO?

Acceptable answer (to be scored 3 if delivery is fluent and pronunciation practically that of a literate native):

*—Porque es el (día de) Año Nuevo.*

4. Do not score responses within sight of the examinee. (See *Administration, paragraph* 7 above.)

5. To compute the examinee's oral-proficiency rating, (1) multiply the total number of ×'s in each column by the number at the head of the column, (2) add the products for each column, (3) divide the sum obtained in step 2 by the total number of items answered with a score of 0 or better. This quotient will give an index of the examinee's *quality of performance within the range of the test marked by the highest numbered exercise that he was able to complete with a score of 1 or better*. The scope of performance corresponding to this level is indicated by the letters A, B, C, D in the left-hand margin of the test. For definition of scope, see *Scope of Oral Performance* above.

The scope or range of the examinee's ability to speak the language (*i.e.*, his readiness to speak on a variety of non-technical topics) can be determined by the vocabulary and syntactical frequency, as well as the topical subject matter, of the scaled items, depending upon the construction of the examination. In the case of the sample test of oral fluency in Spanish, the score of 2.0 for a range of 12 items on Part I means that the examinee seems to be able to communicate ordinary life needs (such as those associated with independent travel abroad) in a completely intelligible, but labored fashion. The writer's acquaintance with the examinee used as experimental subject for the tryout lends strength to the conviction that this is precisely the case.

Obviously, to be reliable for careful diagnosis, a test has to be tried out on several hundred cases, preferably on bilingual examinees whose range of ability in the oral use of a foreign language in different life-situations can be verified from outside sources. On the basis of the scores made by such an experimental group of different ability levels a table of norms can readily be drawn up with interpretations of their probably significance in operational terms.

The foregoing discussion is obviously not presented with the thought that the problems presented by oral fluency testing are solved herewith, but rather to indicate possibilities and practical lines of approach to those who are interested in pioneering in a heretofore unexplored, but increasingly important field. The only real handicap to effective progress is the "correlation fallacy" or common delusion that a high total-score on silent group-tests of vocabulary, grammar, or reading can automatically be taken to mean readiness to speak the language fluently in actual life-situations. In fact, not even ability to understand the spoken language provides any guarantee of a comparable ability to speak it. One need only look at the world about one to find the proof in countless numbers.

Teachers of modern foreign languages are invited to try out Parts I and II of the sample test on a few of their own students, preferably with the collaboration of one or more colleagues to rate the examinees independently. The comparison of the teacher's own ratings with those assigned by her associates to the same examinees, and with her own general knowledge of the students' oral readiness, will illustrate the fascinating possibilities of the field. In some cases, it may also illustrate the shortcomings of formal grammatical methods and silent pen-and-ink exercises in developing anything that foreign natives, in their right minds, would recognize as even partial fluency in speaking their language. Perhaps some reader will want to choose the construction of a valid and reliable oral fluency test, with norms, as a problem for a master's or doctor's thesis. The need is real.

## NOTES

1. Algernon Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States,* The Macmillan Co., New York, 1929, p. 170. Based on questionnaires sent to teachers in 1925–1926.

2. Harry Kurz, "The Future of Modern Language Teaching," in *The Modern Language Journal,* Vol. XXVII, No. 7, 460–469. (November, 1943.) Report of Rockefeller Foundation Conference on modern foreign-language teaching.

# THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LANGUAGE INVESTIGATION TESTS

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[From *H*, XXIX, 1, Feb. 1946, 31–37.]

Not long ago a Latin American friend of mine, learning English here in the United States, inquired about a certain person's age by asking: "How much old does she was?" To North American ears that sentence sounds strange, to say the least; yet, if I may be facetious, I shall maintain that as compared to what our run-of-the-mill North American college student can say in Spanish, my friend was doing all right; our North American student, more likely than not, couldn't have got that simple question out at all! Continuing to over-simplify, I would suggest attributing his failure not nearly so much to a characteristic North American inability to handle a foreign language as to our prevalent tradition of teaching him a foreign language: we have not been teaching him to speak it. That tradition was reinforced through the nineteen-thirties, as a result of studies concluding that it was not feasible in our system to teach thoroughly the oral and aural skills, and that we would better limit our objectives to the teaching of reading ability. Consequently, when in 1941 we found ourselves at war, we had few practical linguists. The Army's General Staff knew that to fight a world war it needed linguists, so it had no choice but to set up a training program. That was the language curriculum of the ASTP, with whose story most modern foreign language teachers are by now quite familiar.

One chapter of that story, however, seems worth repeating at this moment. The Army had gone for consultation to a closely-knit group of linguistic scientists who had already developed and operated the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies for the purpose of training interested and qualified students in a number of languages not customarily taught in our schools. Underlying the Intensive Language Program were certain assumptions and principles which it is useful to recall: (1) that the most efficient way to mastery of a second language is through the same essential steps as one goes through in learning his native language, training first the ear, second the tongue, third the eye, fourth the hand; (2) that these steps can be telescoped for the adult learner, but will best remain in the same order; (3) that the learning process requires concentrated time in which to imitate, memorize, and practice the patterns of the spoken language. Thus the essential basis of the so-called Intensive Method was conceived as a large proportion of time devoted to drill-work in the presence of a native speaker of the language, plus a smaller proportion of time given to intellectual analysis of the structure of the language under the guidance of a trained linguist.

The Army's needs were such that it was ready to stop with the imparting of skill of ear and tongue. But few of the college staffs, to which the Army entrusted the actual work of instruction, were content to stop so short. Forced to set understanding and speaking as first objectives, they nonetheless went on to see what could be accomplished, within this new kind of set-up, with reading and writing. In more than an accidental number of cases, not only the first two but also the last two skills came startlingly well. Academic as well as lay ears pricked up; surveys were made; arguments about method began, but they haven't ended. Meanwhile, a concrete result of the ASTP experience has been the introduction of intensive language courses, on an experimental basis, in a good number of the country's colleges. When it became apparent that such experimentation would be fairly wide-spread, the Rockefeller Foundation set up, in 1944, under the direction of Professor Ralph W. Tyler of the University of Chicago, a research project called *The Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language.* This Investigation was called upon to evaluate objectively the current experiments, and thus to move the question of language pedagogy down, if possible, from the level of speculation and argument to the level of direct evidence. It would attempt to show, in other words, whether or not there is an actual "pay-off," in terms of improved skills, in the intensive as against the traditional methods. Three types of inquiry are involved in such an appraisal: (1) *What* is a given intensive course endeavoring to achieve, and *why?* (2) *How* is it going about achieving its aims? (3) *How well* is it accomplishing its purpose?

It is the last of these three inquiries that concerns us here. In order to answer the question of *how well?*, the Investigation has developed a testing program for measuring the types and levels of skill allegedly imparted through intensive instruction, and is endeavoring to compare the results with those attained in the traditional school and college courses. Now the intensive course sets as an initial objective the ability to speak the foreign language and to understand it when spoken; at the same time it adheres to the acquisition of reading ability as an ultimate goal, in order that the cultural aim of college language study may continue to be served. Thus in order to appraise adequately the worth of intensive versus traditional instruction, aural, oral and reading skills must be tested in both types of course. For the testing of reading and grammar, the Investigation is availing itself of the standardized measures of the Cooperative Test Service. At the same time secondary-school teachers of Spanish will be interested to learn that a new grammar test is being developed at the University of Chicago Laboratory School. It will be similar in form to the grammar section of the Cooperative Test, but the points will be weighted in accordance with the results of several years' cross-sectioning, analyzing, synchronizing and resynchronizing of the teaching of different phases; the manipulation of the verb, the agreement of the adjective, and the handling of personal pronoun objects will be given particular emphasis.

For the measurement of aural and oral skills, the Investigation has constructed and is continuing to develop its own battery of tests. The oral production series will be ready for general use in the spring of 1946, and will include among other techniques a measure of Spanish oral fluency in the form of a talking film worked out at the Chicago Laboratory School. The aural comprehension series has already been administered in a number of centers; the rest of the present article proposes to discuss, with particular reference to Spanish, the form and *rationale* of this series.[1]

The Investigation's tests of aural comprehension, in Spanish as well as in other widely-taught languages, are designed for use at two levels. The Lower Level is for students who have received a total of from ninety to one hundred thirty instructional hours; it is thus appropriate for most three-hour or four-hour-per-week courses toward the end of the first year, and may be used in intensive courses at the end of one semester. The Upper Level is intended for students with over one hundred fifty class-hours, and is thus usable with non-intensive students in the second year, or with intensive students in the second semester.

The material to be comprehended is spoken on phonograph records by native speakers of Spanish. The students are equipped with test-booklets offering multiple-choice responses. Their answers to the test consist solely in marking a choice corresponding to what they have understood. Through this technique the tests are rendered completely standard and objective.

The vocabulary level of the spoken material is carefully controlled. For the most part the Lower Level stays within the fifteen hundred basic words of Keniston's Standard List, and the Upper Level within the first three thousand items of Buchanan's *Graded Spanish Word Book;* both levels however add easy cognates of English and some words admittedly commoner in spoken Spanish than in written Spanish. Control of vocabulary is of course a requisite to validity in a test of this kind; for if a student did not know the meaning of the words, his comprehension would inevitably be impaired by factors other than those for which he was being tested. What the test seeks to inquire is this: Within the limit of words which the student can at his level be reasonably expected to know, how well can he comprehend meaningful combinations of those words put together by a native speaker of Spanish at his normal speaking speed?

Each level is composed of three parts. In the Lower Level, Part I consists of twenty-five completion items: sentences of six or eight words, the last one of which, unspoken by the voice, is to be selected by the student from among three choices given him. For example, the voice might say: *Se cultivan las flores en un . . .* ; the possible answers provided could be *coal mine, garden, box car*. The use of English for the answer-choices avoids limiting their range, for in order to comprehend the example the student is under no necessity of knowing the Spanish form of the unspoken words. If the answer-choices were in Spanish, their necessary restriction to high-frequency words would tend to choke off the source of usable items. As a safeguard in the building of these units, care was taken not to allow the entire meaning of the utterance to hinge upon catching any single word within it.

Part II of the Lower Level test consists of twenty-five definitions in Spanish, containing upwards of a dozen words each. The answer corresponding to each definition is a group of three English words, one of which correctly represents the person, object, or idea defined. For example, the voice might say: *Planta cuyas hojas secas se usan para fumar;* the possible answers provided could be *bittersweet, sorghum, tobacco*. English is used in the answer-choices for the same reason as in the completion items.

Part III of the Lower Level consists of six short anecdotes in Spanish, intended to be humorous, averaging one minute in length. The student listens to one anecdote, immediately after which he is referred to the page of his test-booklet on which the answers to that anecdote are found. These answers take the form of six or seven statements in English, each completed in three possible ways, the correct completions summarizing the content of the anecdote. A lead-off statement might read, for example: *This story takes place (A) in the country, (B) in the city, (C) at sea.* The wording of the answer-statements avoids direct translation of the Spanish in the anecdote. As in the case of the definition series, the wording of the answers is in English not only in order to avoid straight reproduction of the spoken matter, but also to permit free expression of the ideas introduced into the statements; Spanish wording, squeezed into the requisite vocabulary-frequency, would seriously cramp their style. Furthermore, it does not seem desirable to introduce into the student's answering process the further hazard of reading Spanish. He is not being tested for reading ability, and his failure to answer correctly might at some points be attributable to his failure to interpret correctly the written Spanish of the answer-statements. If he has understood the spoken Spanish on which he is being tested, no further obstacle should be put in his way. Finally, to argue that while listening to Spanish he is thinking in Spanish, and that to force him over into English for his answers is a wrench to his mental processes, seems quite unrealistic. It is useless to delude oneself into thinking that a first-year or second-year student has passed the stage where his thoughts first take shape in English.

In the Upper Level Test, the first two parts have the same form as Parts II and III respectively of the Lower Level: twenty-five definitions, and six anecdotes averaging a minute and a half in length. Part III at this level consists of a five-minute dialogue in Spanish between a man and a woman speaker. The student listens to this dialogue in its entirety, then proceeds to the exercise, which consists of fifteen answer-statements having the same form as the answers to the anecdotes. When it was learned, at the try-out stage, that at the upper level a fairly high degree of correlation could be expected between the Definition and the Anecdote Series, the need was felt to include a section designed to test the student's comprehension of more sustained discourse than that provided in the other sections. It has been suggested, by persons administering the test, that the dialogue section may demand too much pure memory of detail to constitute a valid test of ear-comprehension. However, the dialogue passage was selected—from an accepted Spanish play—with deliberate attention to unity and logical progression of thought; the answer-statements concentrate on the outline but not the minute details of the plot, and inquire about the characters and attitudes of the speakers in the situation. So that if a student has truly comprehended the dialogue, it will not be a feat of memory to work out the real answers—they will be there in his consciousness as an inevitable result of real understanding.

In order for mechanized tests of this kind to be reliable, the psychological and physical conditions under which they are given must be as favorable as possible. Every attempt has been made to reduce to a minimum, for the student, the hazards involved in undergoing the test. Thus he is first allowed to hear a "warm-up" passage which is not part of the test proper: at the beginning of the first record, the voice announces: "Para darles a ustedes la ocasión de oír mi voz antes que empiece el examen, voy a leerles las instrucciones en español." This he then proceeds to do, taking up about a minute in which some of the students, it is hoped, can overcome their first fears, relax, and be ready to go. (The instructions are also printed in the test-booklet, in English.) Throughout the test all part-numbers, item-numbers, references to exercise-groups, and the like, are given by the speaker in English, so as to help the student keep his bearings. As for physical conditions, it is useless to pretend that they can be perfectly standardized. Sets of instructions are issued to administrators of the tests, specifying what conditions should be met, such as the use of a high-quality electric phonograph with a light tone-arm, a metallic shadowgraphed needle, a room with satisfactory acoustics, with loud-speaker placed at ear-level in front of the group. The fact remains, unfortunately, that not all rooms are acoustically equal, nor all phonographs equally good. The recordings themselves are the most faithful that can be produced, made in a reputable commercial recording studio under the direction of technical experts.

Many teachers, and most students who have taken the tests, have nevertheless complained that the speech on the records is "too fast." Despite this protest, the speech is of normal conversational rapidity in the Upper Level test, and somewhat slower than that in the Lower Level. Some have argued that it is not justifiable to insist on a normal speaking-rate for "canned speech," from which the ordinary visual aids to comprehension—the speaker's facial expressions, his gestures, much of his personality—have been artificially removed. It may be relevant to observe, however, that one of the commonest media through which foreign languages reach our ears in the United States is the short-wave radio, whose speech is strictly "canned." And radio speakers seldom feel called upon to cut the speed of their delivery because their unseen audience is also an unseeing one. Furthermore, when listening to a high-fidelity recording or broadcast in his native language, a person rarely complains that he is understanding with difficulty because he cannot see the person whose voice he hears. Thus student protests that the speech is too fast, or the mechanical situation unnatural, are perhaps only covering up what would be faulty comprehension of any uninhibited flesh-and-blood speaker other than Teacher with his familiar bag of tricks and his Spanish 1 delivery. And when a professor says, for example: "I suppose that the phonograph records are largely designed to take the place of native speakers; they would, therefore, scarcely be necessary in our case," it is just possible that he is motivated by his unspoken thought that, native speaker though he is, his charges would perform far more creditably under his familiar and studied (in this case perhaps even a bit *over*-studied) delivery than when faced with the unfamiliar voice of some Mr. X. Doubtless they would, but that seems scarcely the point. The question is not *How well can they understand Teacher's Spanish?* but *How well can they under-*

*stand Spanish?* To answer this question, with reference to our students of Spanish from Maine to California, a standardized test with a standardized voice speaking at a standardized speed would seem an unavoidable requisite. The answer may be that most of them do not understand Spanish any too well—if that is so, we should do well to recognize this reality and try to decide what, if anything, would best be done about it. If it is to be concluded that a high level of aural comprehension is unteachable in the average classroom situation, students and laymen are entitled to this knowledge, even if some professors should prefer to hide it from themselves and from each other. If, on the other hand, it is discoverable through standardized tests that Professor Fulano has succeeded in teaching excellent aural comprehension, then the Investigation would ask nothing better than to put before Professor Fulano's colleagues the secret of his success. The Investigation therefore solicits the cooperation of all teachers of Spanish in working toward the establishment of national norms of aural comprehension.

## NOTE

1. These tests may be obtained, free of charge, from the headquarters of the Investigation at the University of Chicago.

# 10 : THE TRAINING AND SELECTION OF TEACHERS

## THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America*, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1900.]

(pp. 31–32) To be ideally prepared for giving instruction in a modern language, even in a secondary school, one should have, aside from the ability to teach and the general personal culture necessary to secure the respect and attachment of pupils, a thorough practical command of the language to be taught, a solid knowledge of its literature, and a first-hand acquaintance with the foreign life of which the literature is the reflection. To be decently prepared, he should, at least, have read so much in the recent literature of the language that he can read about as easily as he would read matter of the same kind in English. He should have studied the principal works of the great writers, and should have taken a course in the general history of the literature. He should know thoroughly the grammar of the language in its present form. If he has some knowledge of the historical development of forms, such knowledge will help him in his teaching, especially in the teaching of French to pupils who have studied Latin. He should be able to pronounce the language intelligently and with reasonable accuracy, though he may not have the perfect "accent" of one who is to the manner born. He should be able to write a letter or a short essay in the language without making gross mistakes in grammar or idiom, and to carry on an ordinary conversation in the language without a sense of painful embarrassment. Even this degree of attainment will usually require residence abroad of those for whom English is the mother tongue, unless they have enjoyed exceptional opportunities in this country. In any case, residence abroad is greatly to be desired.

# THE STATUS OF TEACHER TRAINING AND GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

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[From *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*, C. M. Purin, P.A.C.C. Vol. XIII. The Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1929. Reprinted by permission.]

(Foreword, pp. v–vi) Even a hasty examination of Professor Purin's report will show that the foreign language teachers in this country, as a class, are poorly equipped both in the fundamentals of their subject and in the theory of teaching and the technique provided by practice under supervision. All of these defects, as well as a lack of professional feeling, teachers of the modern languages share with colleagues in other curriculum subjects, and all are to be explained in great measure by the recent history of our secondary school system. The deficiencies in the training of modern language teachers, resulting in a lack of fundamental skills and capacities, appear in glaring relief to every classroom visitor and are written plainly in the statistics contained in this report. Less than twenty-five per cent of the modern language teachers in the public secondary schools of the country have enjoyed opportunities beyond the college years, except such as were furnished by summer sessions. Only a little over thirty per cent of these teachers have ever visited a country where the language which they teach is spoken. Equally significant is the fact that one-third of them have not yet had three years of teaching experience and that thirty-six states in the Union still issue "blanket" certificates authorizing the holders to give instruction in any subject on the secondary school curriculum.

The critic of the American secondary schools needs to keep ever in mind Spinoza's principle in judging human actions: not to ridicule or lament or chide but to seek to understand. Here, as elsewhere, the Committee on Investigation has tried to present the facts as they are and to bring its suggestions for improvement within the frame of that which already exists. It would be easy to outline for the teaching candidate in modern languages an ideal course which should carry in the six high school grades a program of solid training in the fundamentals of the foreign language, including abundant oral and aural practice, and follow through a well-ordered sequence of practical and inspirational collegiate courses in language and literature to the graduate year, accompanying the training in subject matter with an introduction to educational theory and statistical technique and enforcing the entire program after the sophomore year with ever increasing professional consciousness. But neither the present stage of education in this country nor our national organization of society encourages the hope that such a course can be brought within the reach of any considerable number of candidates for secondary school positions in the life of the present generation. Meanwhile the pressing necessities of the more than one million students of foreign languages in the public and private secondary schools and the one hundred and fifty thousand in the colleges force us to take hold of the situation as it now exists and to build upon such facilities for teacher training as American education now affords, encouraged by the evidence derived from questionnaires and tests that, even under the present loose system of training it has been found possible to develop a certain number of highly efficient modern language teachers.

The report, therefore, begins with the college, which is now the sole opportunity for systematic preparation enjoyed by seventy per cent of modern language teachers in the secondary schools. It explores the courses in this type of institution and builds its constructive suggestions for more solid language achievement and earlier professional orientation upon the present major and minor requirements. The lack of any professional outlook both before and after graduation, together with a widespread lack of any real opportunity for initiation into teaching under trained leadership, is one of the most discouraging findings of the inquiry. In formulating its recommendations on this and other points, the Committee has tried to keep in mind the possibilities which lie within the reach of the American colleges as a group rather than the position of the relatively small number of fortunate institutions which, favored by happy circumstances, are enabled to make their work an object lesson for the next generation.

Unfortunately the limitations of its task prevented the Study from undertaking a survey of the preparation of college teachers. Nevertheless, much that concerns the secondary shool teacher in Professor Purin's work applies as well to college instructors who are working with students at the same level of progress.

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## General Recommendations

(pp. 95–97) In the preceding chapters, an attempt has been made to present statistical data and expressions of opinion to make clear the present status of the training of teachers of modern foreign languages for secondary schools, and to determine, at least in a general way, prevailing practices and tendencies. On the basis of the present situation, thus revealed, the Committee has then pointed out manifest harmful tendencies and tried to indicate general lines of progress and to set forth policies that will work for sounder preparation and training and gradually create the professional attitude which is now so widely absent among modern language teachers.

In bringing its study to a close and seeking to formulate conclusions, the Committee is aware that it is unable to demonstrate the value of its program on the basis of experimental evidence and is keenly regretful that time has not permitted this. It hopes that in the near future experimental work may be widely organized in the training of modern language teachers. The recommendations which follow, however, are in many cases such as will be accepted without argument by thoughtful educational administrators everywhere. In such cases the Committee feels that the evidence set forth in the preceding pages give to long recognized needs a new urgency. In cases where opinions may differ, as for instance, concerning the specific requirements for major and minor languages, the reader is referred to the foregoing chapters for details and supporting arguments.

In conclusion it should be repeated that the Committee has tried to keep ever in mind that it is dealing with a practical, not an ideal, situation and for this reason passes many conditions which now surround the training of the modern language teachers without protest or comment, not because it approves them, but merely because they seem necessary stages in the development of the American secondary school toward higher standards.

The recommendations of the Committee are briefly as follows:

1. In so far as facilities permit, modern foreign language departments in the colleges of liberal arts and in teachers colleges should, together with the departments of education, organize curricula and courses specifically designed for the training of teachers of modern foreign languages.

2. The aim of these courses should be to give prospective teachers adequate training in the language, the literature, the history of the foreign civilization and of the foreign language, and in education and psychology.

3. In order that their courses may be properly planned, students intending to teach a modern foreign language should be advised to announce this fact at the beginning of the Sophomore year.

4. Since in many schools teachers are required to teach more than one subject, candidates should be advised to prepare to teach at least

two subjects. Placement bureaus should ascertain which subject combinations are in greatest demand in the secondary schools of the particular territory.

5. For the major language, in addition to two years of high school work, not less than 30 semester hours should be required, of which approximately 16 hours should normally be devoted to the language and 14 hours to literature. For a teaching minor in a modern foreign language, approximately 20 semester hours following upon a two-year high school course should be required, of which 12 hours should normally be allotted to the language and 8 hours to courses in literature. An attempt should be made to measure the attainment of various skills on the part of prospective teachers by a more scientific and accurate method than merely by the completion of a certain number of semester hours of work.

6. An adequate oral command of the language should be required of all major and minor students in a modern foreign language who plan to teach the subject.

7. Whenever feasible, colleges should make arrangement to permit students who elect a major in a modern foreign language to study abroad in their Junior year under proper supervision and to receive academic credit in all subjects thus completed.

8. Extracurricular opportunities for practice in hearing and speaking the foreign language should be provided by language departments through the organization of French, German and Spanish houses, language clubs, etc.

9. A properly qualified representative of the modern language department should be placed in charge of the training of its prospective teachers with respect to the subject-matter courses and should serve as a liaison officer with the department of education. His duties would be:

(*a*) To examine the academic history of candidates with a view to judging their fitness for specialization in a modern foreign language, and to test their progress at regular intervals.

(*b*) To advise candidates in the proper choice of courses.

(*c*) To give the course in the technique of teaching the subject, and either to conduct personally or to keep in close touch with the work in observation and practice teaching.

(*d*) To be chiefly responsible for recommending the candidates for teaching positions, and to maintain close contact with the placement bureau.

10. Each language department, together with the department of education, should make adequate provision for observation and practice teaching extending over at least one semester.

11. Courses in tests and measurements, psychology of high school subjects and the technique of teaching modern languages should be included among the courses in education required of teaching candidates, since these seem to bear an especially close relationship to problems involved in teaching modern foreign languages.

12. Efforts should be made to induce educational officers to give up any form of certificate that does not specify the subject or subjects that the candidate is qualified to teach.

13. Graduation from a four-year college and the fulfillment of a major or minor requirement in a modern foreign language should be regarded as necessary to receive a license to teach that subject in a secondary school.

14. To promote further the professional development of modern language teachers in service, local school boards should seek through bonuses, salary increases or leaves of absence, to encourage the teachers to attend summer courses or regular sessions at centers offering special opportunities for modern language work, and to travel and study abroad.

15. In so far as possible, modern foreign language instruction in high schools should be supervised and inspected by experts in foreign languages.

## STATE REQUIREMENTS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHERS

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[From *MLJ,* XXIX, 6, Oct. 1945, 509–516.]

With the advent of World War II and the emergence of the Army Specialized Training Program for modern foreign languages, a great deal of calumny has been heaped upon the findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study and upon the methods and objectives pursued by our language teachers since the time of that study. Experimental courses are springing up in colleges and universities in an endeavor to adapt the "Army method" to the peacetime curriculum. One is naturally led to wonder whether the colleges are to give themselves completely to the aural-oral method in foreign languages, while the high schools will be forced to remain with the reading method and objective. Unless our secondary schools set higher requirements for their language teachers, it seems extremely unlikely that they will be able to make much headway in the direction of oral-aural facility even if they should wish to adopt the so-called new methods.

This problem, however, is far from new. The present-day enthusiasts seem utterly to have forgotten the recommendations of Charles M. Purin in the study he prepared in 1929 as Volume XIII of the "Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages": *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*. I list below certain of his recommendations (Cf. *op. cit.* pp. 96 f.) which, if adopted in the 1930s, would have yielded many persons well trained in the oral use of the more usual modern foreign languages:

(Listed in the preceding excerpt. *Editor's Note.*)

* * * * *

We have listed above only six of the fifteen recommendations, but they are sufficient to show that the recent demand for the oral objective in foreign languages is, in a great measure, not only nothing new, but is actually what was advocated, at least for teachers, by the Modern Language Study which the innovators delight in deriding.

As far as the colleges themselves are concerned, they had control over only two of the recommendations, namely those relating to the Junior Year Abroad, and to the establishment of language houses on our campuses. It is well known that in both of these areas steady, if not spectacular, progress was being made by the colleges, and the Middlebury Language Schools contributed greatly to college students who found it impossible to spend a year abroad. Other colleges and universities here and abroad were adapting their programs to the Middlebury idea: *Ferienkurse für Ausländer* drew an increasing number of our German students, a summer program in French at Teachers College, Columbia University, was conducted in Paris, while the German department at Columbia set up a similar program on campus. In general, then, until the rumors of war and finally the war itself put an end to many phases of these endeavors, the colleges were increasingly adopting those portions of the Purin report which lay in their sphere.

The thorn in the side of language instruction on the secondary school level, however, has been the fact that for many years schools have been able to assign all or part of their language programs to teachers who were well aware that they lacked sufficient preparation. Of course, we must not lose sight of the fact that our secondary-school administrators have frequently found themselves in a sorry predicament, especially in the period of the two world wars: In World War I, they were faced with a surplus of German teachers on their staffs coupled with a great shortage of French and Spanish teachers; in World War II, Spanish has experienced another boom while both French and German have receded. The schools could scarcely afford to hire new teachers for their swollen Spanish courses while their already employed German and French teachers faced no students. The only recourse has often been to give Spanish classes to teachers who had formerly taught one of the other modern foreign languages, and it was impossible from an administrative viewpoint to look too closely into the preparation that this teacher actually had in Spanish. The cycle of popularity and unpopularity of the various foreign languages has, no doubt, been anything but beneficial to the cause of the modern foreign languages. In the early 1930s, when German was gaining, I have seen a well qualified French teacher given an elementary class in German, despite the fact that she had had only one college year of that language—and that in a city of 600,000 population in New York State! And in the midst of the present war the headmaster of a private school dispensed with all modern foreign languages in disgust since he could not tell from one year to the next which modern foreign language the students would demand. Thus his school became a "Latin school," for here he had the one dependable language.

Professor Purin in the study cited investigated the minimum requirements of the various states. It may be of value to catalog at this time the requirements of these states for modern language teachers as they existed in the summer of 1942. These will then show the impact of the Modern Foreign Language Study, but will not reflect any changes that may have come about in state requirements as a result of the ASTP language experience.[1] We should note particularly the *minimum* requirements since these show the amount of a foreign language a prospective teacher actually *has* to have in order to teach the subject. The state requirements as of 1942 were as follows:[2]

ALABAMA—Class A and B schools: 24 semester hours for a major, 18 semester hours for a minor; Class C schools: 18 semester hours for a major, 12 semester hours for a minor. Otherwise, 12 semester hours for any subject to be named on a secondary certificate (i.e., 12 semester hours is sufficient preparation to teach any subject).

ARIZONA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

ARKANSAS—Minimum of 18 semester hours for high school, or 12 semester hours for junior high school. (Deduction may be allowed to the extent of 2 semester hours for each unit earned in high-school, not to exceed a total deduction of 6 semester hours.)

CALIFORNIA—24 semester hours for a major at least 12 of which are upper division[3] or graduate courses; 12 semester hours for a minor, at least 6 of which are upper division or graduate courses.

**COLORADO**—No specific requirements. (Governed by the rulings of the North Central Association.)

**CONNECTICUT**—15 semester hours required for any subject. For foreign languages there is required, in addition, a written and oral examination which demonstrates proficiency in oral conversational ability, syntax and grammar, and the culture and civilization of the country. (The written examinations are held in January and August each year.)

**DELAWARE**—18 semester hours in addition to two units of college entrance credit in the language (thus making a total equal to at least 24 semester hours).

**FLORIDA**—18 semester hours above the first year introductory course (thus making the actual total 24 semester hours). (Two years of the language in high school is accepted as equivalent to the first year college course.) Certification in two or more languages may be obtained with 12 semester hours in each language above the first year introductory level.[4]

**GEORGIA**—18 semester hours.

**IDAHO**—26 semester hours (or 18 semester hours beyond the freshman language course).

**ILLINOIS**—16 semester hours represents the minimum allowable preparation (while for higher types of schools the requirement runs as high as 48 semester hours). (Credit may be allowed to the extent of 4 semester hours for each unit of language earned in high school not to exceed a total of 6 semester hours.) [5]

**INDIANA**—24 semester hours.

**IOWA**—20 semester hours for a major; 10 semester hours for a minor.

**KANSAS**—Class A schools 15 semester hours, Class B 12 semester hours (with a deduction of 2 semester hours for each unit taken in high school, not to exceed a total of 6 semester hours); Class C schools 8 semester hours (with a maximum deduction of 2 semester hours for one unit or more taken in high school.)

**KENTUCKY**—36 quarter hours (= 24 semester hours) for a major; 24 quarter hours (= 16 semester hours) for a minor. (If one unit of the language is taken in high school, 16 quarter hours are required in college; if two units are taken in high school, 12 quarter hours are required in college; if three or more units are taken in high school, 8 quarter hours are required in college.)

**LOUISIANA**—18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) for all languages except French for which 9 additional quarter hours (= 6 semester hours) are required.

**MAINE**—Blanket certification with no subject matter requirement.[6]

**MARYLAND**—18 semester hours, preferably in addition to two years of high school study of the language.

**MASSACHUSETTS**—18 semester hours for a major; 12 semester hours for a minor.

**MICHIGAN**—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

**MINNESOTA**—Will accept as a minor 18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) of college training. (No specific requirement for a major or minor in any field. Will accept the major or minor from any accredited teacher training institution.)

**MISSISSIPPI**—36 quarter hours (= 24 semester hours). (If two high school units are offered, the college requirement is lowered to 27 quarter hours [= 18 semester hours].)

**MISSOURI**—20 semester hours.

MONTANA—45 quarter hours (=30 semester hours) for a major; 25 quarter hours, or 15 semester hours, for a minor. (Deduction to the extent of 2 semester hours allowed for each unit earned in high school, not to exceed 6 semester hours.)

NEBRASKA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

NEVADA—Blanket certification.

NEW HAMPSHIRE—18 semester hours for a major; 12 semester hours for a first minor; 6 semester hours for a second minor.

NEW JERSEY—30 semester hours for a major; 18 semester hours for a minor.

NEW MEXICO—24 semester hours beyond the elementary course for a major; 15 semester hours beyond the elementary course for a minor.

NEW YORK—18 semester hours beyond the elementary high school (two-year) or college (six semester-hour) course, making a total of 24 semester hours. Further a written and oral examination must be passed. (Any two Romance languages may be taught after 30 semester hours in addition to two entrance units.)

NORTH CAROLINA—18 semester hours in addition to two or more high school units, making a total of 24 semester hours.

NORTH DAKOTA—Any major or minor certified by a school, except that a minor must be not less than 15 semester hours.

OHIO—15 semester hours in addition to 2 units of high school credit.

OKLAHOMA—16 semester hours for a one-year certificate; 24 semester hours for a life certificate. (High school credit shall count at the rate of 2 semester hours for each unit, not to exceed 6 semester hours.)

OREGON—30 quarter hours (= 20 semester hours). (High school credits evaluated in terms of college hours may be accepted in meeting the minimum requirements.)

PENNSYLVANIA—18 semester hours.

RHODE ISLAND—Certification based upon a major or minor from an approved college.

SOUTH CAROLINA—Blanket certification.[7]

SOUTH DAKOTA—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor. (Deductions may be made at the rate of 2 semester hours for each unit taken in high school, not to exceed total deduction of 6 semester hours.)

TENNESSEE—18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours).

TEXAS—18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours.)

UTAH—30 quarter hours (= 20 semester hours) for a major, of which at least 15 quarter hours (= 10 semester hours) must be in upper division courses; 18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) for a minor. (A composite major may be held with a total of 60 quarter hours in three different languages, with not less than 18 quarter hours in any one of these languages.)

VERMONT—No subject certification; candidates are selected when they have completed at least a minor and preferably a major in their subject. (The University of Vermont requires 18 semester hours for a major and 12 semester hours for a minor.)

VIRGINIA—12 semester hours.

WASHINGTON—36 quarter hours (= 24 semester hours) for a major; 18 quarter hours (= 12 semester hours) for a minor.

WEST VIRGINIA—24 semester hours (with a deduction of 2 semester hours for each unit of high school credit, not to exceed 6 semester hours).

WISCONSIN—24 semester hours for a major; 15 semester hours for a minor.

WYOMING—22½ quarter hours (= 15 semester hours). (Deduction allowed to the extent of 3 quarter hours for each unit earned in high school, not to exceed 9 quarter hours.)

In his survey of 1925–26, Purin found 28 states still issuing blanket certificates to teachers, while a mere 12 issued specialized certificates only. In the remaining 8 states, he found both blanket and specialized certification. This situation has been remedied to an almost unbelievable degree in the past twenty years: The above list shows that only three states still indulge in blanket certification, while of the remaining three which do not specify any minimum number of semester hours of college study as a prerequisite to certification, two require a major or minor in the subject from an approved college, and the other is governed by the requirements of the North Central Association.

Professor Purin also asked the following question: "If college credits in a major or a major and minor are definitely specified, what are the semester hour requirements?" His tabulation shows the following for a major: Thirty states had no requirement as to a major; one state suggested a major but did not set any requirement in terms of hours of study; six states required 12 semester hours; two required 15; one required 16; one required 18; two required 20; three required 24; and one required 30.[8]

In 1942 the requirements stated for a major, if the state requirements make reference to a major, are as follows: Twenty-six states make no reference to a major in defining their requirements; two states suggest a major but do not define it in terms of semester hours; two states require 18 semester hours for a major; one requires 18 to 24 s.h.,[9] depending on the type of school for which certification is desired; three states require 20 s.h.; twelve require 24 s.h.; and two require 30 s.h. Whereas in 1925 only seven states set standards for a major in foreign languages at or above 18 semester hours, by 1942 the number of states with such standards has risen to twenty.

Professor Purin's tabulation of requirements for a minor, when specified in terms of college credit, showed the following for 1926: thirty-six states had no requirement as to a minor; one state suggested a minor but did not set any requirement in terms of hours of study; two states required 6 s.h.; one state required 8 s.h.; two required 10 s.h.; four required 12 s.h.; and one required 18 s.h.

For 1942 the above listing yields the following tabulation of the number of semester hours required by state law for a minor: twenty-seven states have no requirement as to a minor; three specify a minor but do not evaluate it in terms of college credits; one state requires 6 to 12 s.h. for a minor; one state requires 10 s.h.; five require 12 s.h.; one requires 12 to 18 s.h.; eight require 12–15 s.h.; one requires 16 s.h.; and one requires 18 s.h. Here again a notable gain can be reported: While in 1925 only five states defined a minor in foreign languages as 12 semester hours or higher, there are now sixteen states with requirements at this level.

The state requirements as to a major and a minor, however, are only indicative of the trend of thought on this subject in state bureaus of certification. States which make no use of the terms "major" or "minor" may have standards just as high as those which do. The requirement that is of most interest both to prospective teachers and to teacher-training institutions is the minimum preparation that is necessary to be allowed to teach a given subject. From Purin's tabulation for 1925 the following rather puzzling requirement ranges emerge: twenty-seven states had no specified requirements; two states ranged from "not specified" to 12 semester hours; two states ranged from "not specified" to 20 semester hours; two states required 6–12 s.h.; one required 6–24 s.h.; one required 8–16 s.h.; one required 10–18 s.h.; six required 12 s.h.; one required 12–24 s.h. in addition to a speaking ability in the language; two required 15 s.h.; one required 18–30 s.h.; and one required 24 s.h. Reduced to minimum terms, it appears that in 1925 there were thirty-one states where it was possible to teach a foreign language without any previous study of that language; three states required 6 semester hours of preparation for their language teachers; one required 8 s.h.; one required 10 s.h.; six required 12 s.h.; two required 15 s.h.; one required 18 s.h.; one required 24 s.h.; and one, in addition to 12 s.h., demanded a speaking ability of the language from its teachers. Thus, of the forty-seven states tabulated, there were only three which in effect demanded as much as six semesters of work in the language, assuming that the college classes met three times a week each semester!—and only eight more demanded as much as two years of work on the same basis! Today nineteen states require in effect at least six semesters of three hours each of the language taught, and twenty others require at least two years of work on the same basis.

The following tabulation shows in detail to what degree Professor Purin's report for the Modern Foreign Language Study seems to have speeded the evolution of requirements to insure teachers of greater competence than were demanded at the time of his study: In 1942 there are only four states which have no specific requirements for their language teachers, and of these one is governed by a regional accrediting association; two further states list no course-hour requirements, but do demand a minor from an approved college; one state accredits a language teacher with as little as six semester hours; one requires 8–15 s.h.; one requires 10 s.h.; ten require 12 s.h.; nine require 15 s.h., of which one demands in addition the passing of a written and an oral examination; two require 16 s.h.; five require 18 s.h., of which one suggests that this amount should be in addition to two years of the language in high school; two require 20 s.h.; two require 21 s.h.; eight require 24 s.h., one of these demanding in addition the passing of a written and an oral examination; and one requires 26 s.h.

Many of the states, as can be observed from the complete listing by states above, insist upon a certain amount of language in college "above and beyond the elementary college course" or "in addition to two years of the language in high school."[10] However, far too many states still treat foreign languages exactly the same as other subjects. It should be obvious that a student who has had three college years, or 18 semester hours, of a subject such as English, history, or mathematics, is far better prepared to teach that subject in a secondary school than would be the case of a prospective foreign language teacher equipped with an equal number of hours of the foreign language. The reason for this is not far to seek: The subjects I have enumerated are not begun at the beginning in college—the student has already had four years of English, some history, and some mathematics in high school. He has already passed through the elementary stages of these subject-matter fields before he starts to accumulate the number of semester hours that will grant him certification to teach that subject in a secondary school. With the foreign languages, however, the problem is vastly different. Unless a state specifically demands that semester hour requirements for foreign language teachers are to be above and in addition to the elementary course (two years of high school, or one year of college), a great likelihood exists that great numbers of its certified language teachers may never have had that particular foreign language in high school. In each such case, then, the standards for foreign language teachers will be lower than for any other subject.

Despite the great strides that have been made, there is thus still room for improvement. The most obvious change to be made is to place foreign languages on a basis with other subjects by demanding of prospective teachers that the elementary course shall not count toward the total semester hours required for certification, or for a minor or a major. Even this adjustment would leave us a long way from the demands of the AST Program. And one needs only return to the proposals of Professor Purin, quoted at the outset of this article, to see that but one state has measured up to his minimum requirements for a foreign language teacher:

20 semester hours in addition to the elementary course. Two other states obtain the same end by means of written and oral examination.[11] That leaves us with forty-five states in which we must seek to raise minimum standards to a level that will guarantee an adequate command of the language on the part of each certified language teacher! By then we will have at least attained the goal of teacher training proposed in the Modern Language Study in 1929. If our future strides in this direction are equally rapid, we may expect some of the stimulus provided by the aims and methods of the ASTP language units to begin to infiltrate into our secondary schools on a statewide basis in 1960—at least in three of our forty-eight states!

## NOTES

1. These data were gathered during the spring of 1942 by Jean Hemrich Dahl, then Secretary to the Department of Germanic Languages and Literature of the University of Washington.

2. Some of the requirements are listed in "quarter hours" rather than in the more usual "semester hours." Two semester hours equal three quarter hours.

3. "Upper division" courses are those designed especially for the junior and senior college years.

4. Applicants whose native or home language has been a modern foreign language and who present satisfactory evidence to this effect may secure certification in the language involved with 6 semester hours above the second year college level, and three semester hours in observation and practice teaching in the language involved.

5. Fluency in speaking a modern language, such as that attained by one who is a native of the country where the particular language is spoken, in individual cases may be accepted as a part of the teacher's preparation.

6. Here, as far as certification is concerned, it is apparently more important to know how to teach than what to teach, for there is a requirement of 18 semester hours of courses in Education.

7. A committee has been at work for over two years on specific subject matter requirements and hopes to bring in its report early in 1945.

8. This report was based on 47 states, not including Mississippi.

9. Hereafter "semester hours" will be abbreviated thus:—s.h.

10. In the above summary I have tried to reduce these added requirements to the terms of the most usual language course by counting either the elementary college course or the two-year high-school course as equivalent to six semester hours. In one or two instances I may have arrived at figures from two to four semester hours too low.

11. Some others have substantially higher standards for their better schools, but these standards are not statewide and are hence not considered.

# THE TRAINING OF A TEACHER OF FRENCH

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[From *EO,* VI, 4, May 1932, 235–244.]

One of the difficult responsibilities of the secondary school administrator is the selection of competent teachers of modern foreign languages. In the old days when teaching languages in the high schools meant simply memorizing lists of detached words, chapters of grammar rules, translating meaningless sentences to and from the vernacular, perusing in a mad steeplechase countless pages in the foreign language, then giving back those same pages in some kind of English translation just as a comfortable device to prove that the assignment was prepared and probably understood, in those days all institutions were equipped to prepare teachers able to meet such meager requirements. But, today the modern high schools (and they constitute a majority in the country) expect the teaching of a modern language to be so organized that there will remain, at the end of the course, several skills, such as reading in the true sense of reading, the ability to understand the spoken language and to use it at least as a classroom tool, and the ability to write simple sentences in that language. Also, the teaching has taken a broader scope and is expected to leave with the students information on the culture and civilization of the country the language of which is studied. The student's horizon must be widened by contact with new forms of art, new molds of thought, new ideals, a deep sympathy with another civilization, and a feeling of understanding which will, if carefully directed, advance the cause of universal peace. These various results can be achieved in the short time at our disposal, two or three, rarely four, years, only if teachers are so thoroughly acquainted with the history, customs, and life of the foreign nation that they can interpret it intelligently to their classes. In order to economize time, they must be well-trained in an efficient technique that will make use of known principles of pedagogy and psychology, and that is in thorough conformity with laws of learning. They must secure the whole-hearted co-operation of the parents and the students, since, otherwise, the classes in this elective subject will not be patronized, or, if attended, will lack that spark of eagerness, curiosity, and joy which alone can make learning a pleasurable, and, therefore, a profitable task. Long experience with high school students, and many years of contact with parents as an administrator has convinced me that unless our teaching results in at least a modest ability to speak and understand the language, we cannot secure the whole-hearted interest of either parents or students. This practical use of the language is a very clear demand made upon our teaching by all parents. The only test that they ever use in measuring our work is an oral one. Whatever may be the merit of the "reading method," it will always fail to satisfy either the students or the parents, at least as I know them in Cleveland.

The teacher of French, therefore, to be successful must have a reasonable ability to speak and to understand that language, with a range of vocabulary sufficient to cover the material usually handled in a two to four year high school course. The pronunciation must be accurate, and if possible the intonation should be somewhat French. His mastery of the fundamental principles of the language should be such that he is at all times sure of himself in explaining points of grammar and in illustrating them with sentences at the blackboard. It is, indeed, painful when teachers with a master's degree in French are questioned by an advanced class about glaring errors of syntax which have been written by the teachers themselves. This type of knowledge, practical and theoretical, is of fundamental importance and should, in every case, be given precedence over so-called cultural information. The first obligation of the teacher is to know that which he is actually teaching, and during the four years of high school he will teach primarily, and almost exclusively, language. This fact must be acknowledged by all having the responsibility of preparing teachers of French. Valuable, essential even, as may be the knowledge of literature, it cannot replace for a high school teacher the knowledge of the language itself, both from a practical or syntaxical point of view. We must not continue the tragedy of graduates, some of them with master's degrees in French, who know a great deal about literature, which they are not called upon to teach, but are woefully ignorant of the structure of the language, which they are expected to impart.

May I here plead with college faculties responsible for the preparation of students who are prospective teachers of French to accept fully this responsibility and to endeavor to meet it. It is not fair to evade the question by explaining that colleges are institutions that primarily aim to give "cultural" training, and that since literature constitutes a field much richer in aesthetic values and much more prolific in stimulating ideas than the systematic drill represented by the study of the structure of the language, it should be given preference. Without arguing whether there is not an equal, if different, educational value in the practical functional study of a language, the fact remains that among those students several are majoring in French and have declared their intention of teaching it after graduation. Unless those candidates for the teaching profession are told at once that this particular college does not pretend to prepare teachers to meet conditions as they exist in a first-class high school, then the college, if it accepts such students, is morally and ethically, if not legally, responsible for equipping them with the amount and type of knowledge of French that is essential for teaching that subject. Candidates with a major in French must be spared the tragic disappointment that they meet when they apply for a position to teach French in some first-class high school and discover that, though they are well-versed in the history of literature, they are insufficiently prepared in several essential requirements such as a reasonable facility in oral expression, a good pronunciation, and the ability to write French fluently if not elegantly. I may be pardoned for speaking with some feeling on this situation, because in the twelve years that I have been in charge of the examination of the many candidates applying for interviews I have been the sympathetic but helpless witness of several heart-breaking scenes.

Prospective teachers with only an imperfect knowledge of the language itself should either be excluded from "cultural" courses until they have completed their language preparation both oral and grammatical, or, if admitted to those courses, they should be told that they cannot expect the faculty recommendation for teaching French. Let us have foreground before we undertake constructing the background. First comes the mastery of the language to be taught. At the horizon I see a cloud that spells danger to this preparation. Lately, we have been told that reading was the most important achievement and that reading skill could be achieved with a passive knowledge of grammar for recognition only. So great is the urge to introduce these students to the course in literature, that we find them reading, or at least attempting to read, classics long before they can write correctly, pronounce respectably, or have any but the vaguest ideas of that thing called subjunctive. I fear for American scholarship when this slovenly, purely passive learning of language does invade our higher institutions. I also wonder where our supply of adequately trained teachers will come from when the "reading method" becomes an accepted practice.

I am well aware that there seems to be a conflict of demands here: on the one hand we are insisting for a mastery of the language itself, and on the other hand we are conscious of the fact that without the valuable background of literature, civilization, and history of the French nation, the teaching can only be cold and will fail to introduce the student to this interesting field of which the language is to be the key. We should not have to make a choice between the foreground and the background in the preparation of a teacher, and I am going to submit a plan which would promote the well-rounded equipment of the prospective teacher.

A distinction should be made between a major in French merely for purposes of culture, as a college preference, and a major in French with the intention to teach it. Students for the second group should be selected with the greatest care and only from those who have had at least three, or preferably, four years of French in high school. Each professor should watch during the first semester of the freshman year the students who exhibit a particularly good knowledge of French, those who can speak it somewhat fluently, who write it more accurately, students whose pronunciation is particularly pleasing for accuracy and intonation; this superior group should then be invited to major in the language with a view to teach it. At the end of the first semester, a conference should be held between the professors in the department who are familiar with the work of those students, and each candidate should be thoroughly appraised from the standpoint of knowledge of the language. An interview should be suggested then with several members of the faculty of the School of Education to determine whether the candidates possess the type of personality that is likely to make them successful teachers. The list of majors in French should be established very carefully and should represent a really superior group, one that the faculty intends to prepare very carefully and for which it is ready to assume responsibility, both for placement, and as far as this can be done, for future success as teachers.

It would be too expensive to segregate this small group of students during the three and one-half years of college still remaining, so they may be registered in the regular classes, but they should be given two hours a week extra in a separate class. The course of study that would be particularly satisfactory for all freshmen who come with four years of high school French may be outlined as follows: The first year is to be devoted to a further study of the language. The work should consist of reading, but mainly from the standpoint of language rather than of literary appreciation. This reading is to be dealt with orally in the classroom through the device of questions and answers, résumés, occasional dramatizations, and is to be supplemented with written work at the blackboard. Composition, both formal and informal, should be assigned on the text read. The idiomatic expressions of importance are to be singled out for further drill. Pronunciation should be carefully and skilfully corrected through phonetic directions, preferably by a trained phonetician. A systematic review of grammar through functional application rather than recitation of rules should round out the knowledge of syntax essential to a good understanding of the structure of the French language.

During the second semester of the first year, the same work should be continued, but the selected students majoring for teaching, the so-called specialists, should meet twice a week in addition to the regular three meetings of the regular class. Those two periods should be devoted to a more intensive drill both oral and written. Extra books should be assigned and recited in résumés, in French, of course. May I say here that the classes should be conducted entirely in French, both in order to economize time and to create fluency in speaking and understanding through repetition.

However good high school courses may be, even after four years of the best teaching and with good students, it is very difficult to begin with any success the study of literature in the freshman year of college. I assume, of course, that the courses in literature are given in French. The vocabulary necessary for literary discussions and appreciation is quite new and the students have still much to learn in the field of language proper. I believe that three years, sophomore, junior, and senior, ought to be sufficient to give to students of French a well-digested knowledge of a few famous and representative names in each period of literature. I am not advocating the survey course, because it covers so much ground that it is bound to be vague and it leaves the student with the feeling of dizziness of one who has watched a kaleidoscopic landscape while traveling in an express train. Students, after a survey course, seem to suffer from hopeless bewilderment; they experience that helpless feeling of being lost in a forest that they cannot see because of the trees. They have only a faint remembrance of having met such authors as Corneille, Boileau, and Voltaire, but they are hazy about the exact century in which to place them and the type of works that made them famous. I should prefer to have the student take one century at a time. Thus, the sophomore year may cover the study of the early French literature and the seventeenth century. The junior year could be devoted, at least during the first semester, to some significant contributions made by the eighteenth century to literature and political economy. The last three semesters could then be spent on the nineteenth century beginning with the Romanticists; in the last semester of the senior year students should take up some of the contemporary writers that are commonly acknowledged as of sufficient importance to be introduced in a course that must make a limited and careful selection. The danger in an undergraduate course in literature is an attempt to include too many writers and for lack of time to read only a few extracts rather than a whole book; a whole book is preferable even if it must be the only one studied from that particular author. "Explication de Textes" has, indeed, a very important place and we probably are not doing enough of it in this age of quantity versus quality, when our students are told that the great merit is to have read many books. A careful analysis should be made of one short passage of each writer, first as a training in literary criticism and intelligent reading, and, secondly, as a means of discovering the typical characteristics of that particular author; but this should never be a substitute for the reading of at least one whole work, preferably two, of each author studied. Only by a prolonged contact of this kind may the student feel the beauty of a literary masterpiece and commune with the thoughts of another mind. Since undergraduate students read slowly and must have leisure for literary appreciation and for discussion of such ideas in class, I would personally limit the study of each school of literature to not more than three names. In the seventeenth century, for example, Le Cid would be adequate to give an idea of the best in Corneille. For Molière, I should select three plays; for Racine, one play; for Boileau, a longer extract; and for La Fontaine, two or three fables.

For the eighteenth century, which constitutes rather long and difficult reading, I should make a careful choice of interesting work such as Beaumarchais' plays Le Barbier de Séville and Le Mariage de Figaro, Lesage's Gil Blas, a few extracts from Lettres Persanes of Montesquieu, Zadig in a school edition, J. J. Rousseau's extracts of Les Confessions, extracts of Émile and possibly the whole Discours Sur les Sciences et les Arts.

More time, naturally, should be devoted to the nineteenth century since it is much richer, closer to our times, and, therefore, more important for the interpretation to the students of France of today. One semester might be devoted to the Romanticists. The study would include the poets Lamartine, Alfred de Musset, Alfred de Vigny, and Victor Hugo, with readings of an adequate selection of representative poems of each. Among the novelists, Madame de Stael, Chateaubriand, Victor Hugo, and Georges Sand. Practically all the students have read some of the writings of Victor Hugo and Georges Sand, so that less time probably will be spent in the study of those authors. During the senior year, the Realists, with Balzac, Gustave Flaubert (with at least the reading of Madame Bovary), Alphonse Daudet, de Maupassant, choice of "contes," Edouard Rod, Anatole France, Paul Bourget, Henri Bourdeaux, and Pierre Loti, the theatre, Edmond Rostand, Sardou, Hervieu, ten or eleven books altogether. Those names are only given as suggestions. Each instructor has his preference in the vast amount of literary productions and it matters little whether one author is substituted for another as long as the fundamental principle of limited and careful selection is followed, and provided we avoid the study of an undue number of authors with the attendant danger of confusion.

What about a course in civilization? While I have no definite data on the possibility of imparting the important information gathered under the heading of civilization and customs as an incidental part of the various courses in literature, I have a strong suspicion that in the hands of a careful teacher this would probably be the most interesting and most efficient method of teaching this subject. In this way he could tie up together in a vivid and vital relationship history, political changes, customs, and literature. It is quite obvious that no instructor can interpret intelligently even simple stories like Le Petit Chose without a knowledge of the French school system and the differences in educational opportunities between the various strata of society.

The history of France, too, is a vital part of the equipment of a teacher of French. It would suffice, however, to require of every specialist in French one or two courses in French history to be taken for the usual credits in the department of history. When this is supplemented by discussions suggested by the various literary movements, the background of knowledge of history ought to be ample, especially if particular attention is paid to great movements and their influence on the march of times rather than to dates and names.

All those courses may be taken in the regular classes three times a week, but as stated previously, the specialist is expected to devote two hours a week additional time to a more intensive study either of additional books, or in perfecting his linguistic equipment. During at least one year, some extra time should be given to the study of a few facts about the history of the French language.

The teaching of French pronunciation is admitted to be one of the difficult problems connected with elementary French courses. Few, indeed, are the teachers who pronounce well themselves, and still fewer are those who have even a modest knowledge of the fundamental principles of French pronunciation. Two problems are involved here: the first one consists in correcting the mistakes of pronunciation acquired by the student in the course of his previous study of French, and the second consists, while giving those exercises, in imparting to him the principles of phonetics that will enable him to prevent the formation of bad pronunciation when he, in turn, begins his teaching of French. May I plead here for a course in phonetics that will simplify the excessive amount of material at present offered the student. Practically a perfect pronunciation can be secured and imparted by attention to a very few basic principles. The most important one, I found, is the rigidity of the position while pronouncing French sounds. The second one, the careful, even monotonous succession of syllables, each one equally stressed, with the possible exception of the tonic stress and the occasional oratorical stress. If the student knew how to pronounce correctly the vowels, diphthongs, and nasals; if he were careful to explode the explosive consonants, enunciate clearly each syllable as an independent unit, he would, indeed, have a pronunciation which one would call acceptable. The correction of mistakes of pronunciation of college students is really a major problem and it can furnish the opportunity to teach essential principles of phonetics to a whole class who, by watching the instructor, would learn how to use phonetic means to prevent the same mistakes by their students. In my experience, I found the phonetic transcriptions quite useless as a means of learning pronunciation. They merely add another symbol and one that does not contain, alas! the miraculous power of teaching sounds.

Last, but not least, the problem of methods. I am sure that no one any longer believes that all a teacher needs in order to know how to teach is mastery of the subject. Let us be fair to the department of education! It may have been true in the past that, because of lack of cooperation between schools of education and college faculties, students were carefully trained in education courses to teach something they did not know; but today there is better understanding between the two faculties and most college professors admit that it is quite essential to give information to prospective teachers on the problems connected with the teaching of each subject. To send young, inexperienced candidates to repeat the mistakes which we all made when we blundered along trying to find the best way to teach our classes is certainly not an intelligent procedure. Isn't it more sensible to advise those future teachers substantially thus: "Here are the various roads that you can follow: some of them never lead anywhere. Others may lead to Rome, but we found them arduous and hilly and strewn with tombstones of students who could not stand the difficult journey. Here is one that appears for the time being to be pleasant, safe, with a most interesting landscape and the certainty of leading us to our goal. Follow it in your teaching until, through your own experimenting, you have opened a wider and better and easier one yourself." Truly a course in methods of teaching French, when properly planned, when it is based on a study of the laws of learning and the sound principles of pedagogy and psychology, when it is supplemented with demonstration classes, and if possible with practice teaching under skillful guidance of a model teacher, surely such a course is not only worthwhile, but an absolute necessity in order to eliminate the tremendous waste of student material and time. Civilization consists greatly in transmitting to the new generation the acquired experience of the past. A course in method of teaching should be the means of imparting to this new generation of teachers our past experiences, our hopes, our guiding principles.

Too often this course, unfortunately, is offered by instructors who have not made a deep study of the problems involved in the teaching of foreign languages. In the last few years, because requirements for certification have imposed a course in special methods, colleges and schools of education have assigned this work to anyone on the faculty willing to teach it, even though this instructor has had no experience in the teaching of languages in secondary schools, or is without training in the field of general education. Too often, also, practice teaching is purely a perfunctory procedure to satisfy certificate requirements. It is, indeed, in many cases the blind leading the blind. Many colleges offer a course in method which is no more than a discussion of textbooks available, and the practice teaching consists in sending the student specialists to the nearest local high school. Special methods, observation, and practice teaching constitute a vital problem, one of the most important for the satisfactory equipment of a language teacher. Not only should the method teacher have expert knowledge of the various problems, but there should be close relationship between the principles of language pedagogy taught in his course and the technique of teaching used by the demonstration and practice teacher. Indeed, the practice teacher should be an expert in order to give intelligent direction and make constructive criticism of the teaching by the students. Such conditions are rarely met, unless the college maintains its own secondary school. Authorities in charge of teachers' certificates could well go one step further and before accepting such units of work investigate closely whether the spirit of those essential requirements is followed instead of merely a perfunctory obedience to the letter of the law.

Much friction has been caused between college faculties and schools of education by the so-called educational units required by most states for certification of teachers. In some states the number is as large as twenty-four. This practically represents one year of work. The college faculties maintain, and quite justly, that with a subject-matter as rich as a language, it is impossible to spare so much time for educational work. On the other hand, educators are endeavoring to raise teaching to the state of a skilled profession, one that requires knowledge of processes and technique besides mastery of subject-matter. My varied experience as a college professor and an administrator in a school system has convinced me that the claims of the college faculty are justified and that they are entitled to the full four years if they are to give their students the quality and type of preparation that high school principals are demanding with greater and greater insistence. The most satisfactory way to meet the need for professional training is to add a fifth year during which this educational work could be completed on the graduate level. Thus, high schools would require a master's degree of all who contemplate entering the teaching profession. Several cities have already adopted this rule, and in the present over-crowded market for teachers this would add no hardship on either the school administrator or the candidate.

The most hopeful sign for future progress in the field of the teaching of foreign languages is the much closer understanding that now prevails between college and school of education faculties. Professors have begun to accept responsibility for the adequate preparation of teachers. Genuine efforts are made to organize college courses in languages so as to enable the graduates to meet the higher standards now existing in high schools. Gone, and forever I hope, is the attitude of indifference to those special problems of the secondary school that used to prevail in academic circles! This magnificent scorn of the college scholar in his tower of ivory looking askance at the demands of the high schools for a practical knowledge of the language by the future teachers has been replaced in many institutions by a sympathetic examination of the special needs of the secondary schools and by a willingness to equip students to meet those needs.

Much still remains to be done, but I am decidedly optimistic when I compare the present preparation of candidates applying at my office with the meager command of the language that characterized the college graduate of ten years ago.

## WHAT CONSTITUTES A WELL-TRAINED MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHER?

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[From *MLJ*, XXV, 4, Jan. 1941, 293–305.]

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The training of teachers is the dominant factor in any educational system, and especially in a democracy. More cogent and far-reaching than curricula or methods or even than content, the formation of the teacher is the key to the success of an educational program. A poor teacher will impart but little to his pupils in spite of the best possible program; while a superior teacher will transcend a poor subject or faulty organization, and with a method all his own, will compel the intellectual development of his pupils.

Most of all this is true in the cultural subjects such as the modern foreign languages. They depend in large part on the teacher for their success, and for the profit to be derived from them. It is easy to explain and even to justify this fact. The so-called utilitarian subjects—manual arts, vocational training, practical sciences—interest the pupil and are popular because of the immediate profit in view. The objective is tangible, and will be sought even in spite of a poor teacher. You never heard a high school youngster say that cooking or carpentry were not worth electing because the teacher was not interesting. The modern languages have suffered greatly, however, from that very criticism. A father announces, "I got nothing out of my French course in school, and the teacher was a bore, so I'll not let my boy waste his time on it." Even the Modern Language Study seemed to give official sanction to such a conclusion—modern language teaching has not always lived up to its claims, largely because of inefficient teaching: we should therefore attempt less.

What a defeatist doctrine, and what a retreat many of us have had to make! I believe that the answer is rather in the vigorous improvement of our teachers. Of course the modern languages will have to fight for their place in the curriculum; they should, like every other subject. If we fail to deliver what the public has a right to expect of us, out we go. That is the situation which will keep us on our toes. In fact, the difficulties of the last few years have had a distinct tendency to make us more wide-awake and efficient. I am convinced that we have little to fear, in the long run, from the problem of cultural subjects in our American educational system, provided the teachers of those subjects are properly chosen and trained for their task.

We can be encouraged by the increasing attention which our leaders are giving to this subject of teacher training. One of the most important volumes published by the Modern Language Study, was, to my mind, Professor Purin's *Training of Teachers in the Modern Foreign Languages*. It revealed conditions nothing less than shocking, even though it had no means of bringing about a reform. A year ago, the General Education Board granted $420,000 to the American Council on Education for a complete survey of the problem of teacher training. The resulting Commission on Teacher Education is already functioning actively. The field of modern foreign languages is included, and recommendations will be made. Note especially that in this survey, our standards will be judged objectively by experts outside our field. In 1938, the American Association of Teachers of French appointed a committee with Professor Russell Jameson as chairman, to examine the training of French teachers. It has been working for two years, first to draw up a suggested code of standards, and secondly to devise means of improving the professional equipment of teachers of French. A preliminary report will soon be ready. Other organizations are doing similar work.

At the same time, the various state departments of education are showing greater interest in the preparation of their teachers in subject matter. We all know of the valiant battle which the late Dr. Price waged in New York State for the testing of modern language teachers by written and oral examinations, which have become a model for teaching-certificate tests throughout the country. The Connecticut Commissioner of Education instituted a similar test for Connecticut last year. The adoption of the Five-Year Plan in New York State adds a further, though still highly debatable check.

Nevertheless, our state requirements in the modern languages are for the most part extremely lax. They still cling to the indulgent idea that if the teacher has had enough education courses, variously estimated at from twelve to eighteen semester hours, he can teach any subject at all. In many states a teacher is required to have a college major with eighteen hours, and a minor with nine or twelve, in order to obtain a teacher's certificate; but there is rarely any rule which would prevent a teacher with a major in English and a minor in history from being compelled to teach a course in French or German if the need happened to occur. Such local arrangements are entirely left to the authority of the local school principal. I am ashamed to say that in certain states of New England where standards are assumed to be strict, no requirements at all are made in a particular subject matter for a teacher's certificate.

Even at best, a requirement of semester hours is inconclusive. We all know that a student can sit through fifteen semester hours of lectures in English on the history of French literature, and come out as poorly prepared in the French language as when he went in. Even a Bachelor's degree with a major in the foreign language is not sufficient guarantee that the student possesses the skills which will make him a successful teacher. There is a vast amount of downright *bad* teaching going on nowadays right before our eyes; and those teachers are theoretically innocent because they comply with all requirements.

Here is a problem which should challenge the best thought of each one of us. With all the earnestness at my command, I urge every modern language teacher, each in his own locality, to work for his own protection and for the dignity of his profession. If nothing can be done about the present staff, at least the standards must be raised for new appointments. We must make sure that no one, under any circumstances, is entrusted with a class in a modern foreign language, unless he is qualified to do a really good job. Otherwise we are not only endangering our own professional existence but we are breaking faith with our employers, the people. They have a right to demand *experts* as teachers for their children.

While we are strict, let us also be fair, however, and let us admit that if a teacher is poorly trained or if modern language teaching is inefficient, it is not always the teacher's fault. In the first place, the training of a modern foreign language teacher requires a longer time and a larger expenditure of money than for almost any other teacher. A complete language habit takes a long time to build, and the utmost concentration. Witness the fact that teachers of biology, chemistry, European history or economics frequently *begin* their subject in the first or even the second year of college. On the other hand, very few students who begin French in college make successful majors or teachers. The school training of a language teacher usually represents a minimum of seven years invested. Add to this the expense of foreign travel which has practically become a requirement for every language teacher, and it is evident that he has a right to be considered a specialist.

In most of the small high schools he is treated more like a general practitioner. Any teacher of a foreign language is expected to know them all—Latin, French, Spanish, a bit of German, and even Italian. "What, you don't speak Italian? Aren't you the language teacher up at the school?" Then too he is expected to have studied all the other cultural subjects as minors, and should even be able to teach a class in history if the social science teacher is ill, or give talks on European art or music on occasion. All these topics are admittedly within the range of a language teacher's interest, but he should not be expected to be a teacher of them all. Well do I remember a letter from Dr. Price in which he reproached me for recommending a student as being well prepared to teach both French and Spanish. He declared that no one could be an expert in more than one foreign language. I hastened to agree with him—most heartily, and regretted that the demands of his high schools were forcing us to attempt the impossible.

Moreover, the salaries offered to our language teachers are generally inadequate to attract a specialist, in view of what we have said, or even to permit and justify his specialization. We must confess that it is futile and well nigh idiotic for a teacher to attempt the continuous and advanced study necessary to be an expert in two or three academic fields, on a salary scale similar to that of a typist and filing clerk in an office or a salesgirl in a department store. A pitiful note came to me not long ago from a teacher in a country high school. She wanted so very much to come to summer school, but her salary was $85 a month for nine months, total $765 a year, and she was teaching two classes of French, and one class each in *four other* subjects. Her letter confided plaintively, "I can't afford a summer of study, and even if I could, I wouldn't know which subject I ought to study first." Of course she is a poor teacher—what else could one expect?

And finally, our specialists too often lack the proper material equipment. It is like asking a surgeon to perform a delicate brain operation with his patient reclining on the kitchen table, to ask a French teacher to do successful work without an adequate supply of maps, books, pictures, phonograph records and realia. Imagine a chemistry teacher doing without his laboratory, his bottles of chemicals, apparatus, and piped gas and water. Yet how many of us have not even a designated classroom that we can call our own, *the French Room*, a place where we can hang our maps and post our bulletin board and spread out our supplementary reading books. That is our laboratory, and we have a right to it as a specialist! I heard of a beginning French class last fall that was quartered in the school lunchroom! There, while the class of twenty swung its heels on the high stools and wrote exercises on its knees for lack of arm rests, the teacher, a beginner too, labored without blackboards or accessories of any kind, to impart to the class some of her own fast-waning enthusiasm. Yes, the public has a right to expect that a language teacher will be an expert: and the expert has a right to be treated as such.

What then is the ideal program of training for the modern language teacher, this specialist whom we are discussing? I realize very keenly the dangers that confront me. I dare not be dogmatic and precise, for I shall appear to say to some—"You have not done this, therefore you are not a good teacher," though perhaps you are among the best. Or else I shall be saying to others—"You have done this, therefore you are a good teacher," whereas you are really a very poor one.

We all know the purely mechanical program. The usual college student, with about three years of high school preparation as a background, majors in the foreign language, and receives his A.B. degree with from thirty to thirty-six hours in his major subject, and twelve to fifteen hours in one or two minors intellectually related to his major. After a year or two of teaching experience, he begins work on a Master's degree, in part-time study, extension and summer courses, and finishes as soon as he can, because an A.M. is being more and more required for advancement in rank and salary.

Such is the mechanical outline of a teacher's training. As a definition of a well-trained teacher, it is an outright absurdity. First of all, because credits or semester hours do not represent knowledge. What interests us is not how long a prospective teacher has studied, but *what* he has studied, and what was the content of the course, and how much he absorbed of it.

During the spring I receive on an average two letters a week which read something like the following:—"I am a teacher of French; I have taught for six years, but I can't speak French, and I understand it only with difficulty. You see, our teachers didn't talk French very much in college, and all my classes except one were in literature. Here in Centerville, I never hear any French except my own, and that of my students. What would you advise me to do?" I fancy that this teacher feels at times very much like jumping into the river.

Fortunately, such a college course is becoming less typical; and although it is still common, even the students themselves are on their guard against it. Let us therefore assume that the college course has been well-planned, and that the content has been designed for the prospective teacher.

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Having thus cleared the decks for action, I should like to make a statement with which I hope you will agree, for upon it depends the rest of this discussion, and indeed the core of this article. It is this:—the formal academic training of a teacher is only the ***beginning***, the foundation of the edifice. What the teacher does to himself after he stops taking courses, makes all the difference between a success and a failure. Of course, the beginning, the foundation, must be correct, strong and adequate. Yet the trite saying that college commencement is only the beginning of an education is strikingly true for the teacher of modern foreign languages. Show me the language teacher who heaves a sigh of relief when he tucks his diploma under his arm, and says, "Now, no more studying for me,"—and I'll show you a teacher who is already dead to his profession. A teacher's preparation is ***never*** ended; the A.B., the A.M., even the Ph.D. is not the terminus of a program. So I am pleading for live teachers who continue to grow; progressive teachers who demand progress first of all in themselves; teachers who consider any day lost unless they have learned something more about their subject. Such a teacher, with his formal training safely behind him, and with no thought of further credits or degrees, works unceasingly to perfect his mastery of his field and to enrich his presentation of it. Much is being written now about in-service teacher training, and I agree most heartily with the idea; but in the largest sense, it is an individual and personal problem for each teacher.

With this attitude clearly defined, and with this ideal of the modern language teacher set firmly before us, let us review rapidly the various essentials for a mastery of his subject. In this analysis, all the modern foreign languages are included, although I shall probably say French sometimes when I mean them all, or draw practical examples from

French, trusting to you to substitute the proper references for the other languages.

The first essential on our list is a correct pronunciation. We shall all agree that this is a fundamental and indispensable qualification of a good language teacher. Now let us assume that our college study has given us a good knowledge of the elements of pronunciation, considerable drill in the correct formation of sounds, and that some further graduate study has taught us the scientific basis of phonetics, the structure of the vocal organs, and the use of phonetic symbols.

Still we confess to ourselves that all this is not enough. Our pronunciation is labored and unnatural, it is the result of conscious effort. We make bad errors when we are not thinking about it. We know that perfect pronunciation must be habitual, automatic, and natural. We remember with an acute twinge of conscience that pronunciation is that part of our teaching over which we have the least control. Classes learn for the most part by unconscious imitation; and they imitate *everything* they hear, not merely when our own pronunciation is on its good behavior. We teach a good accent or a sloppy accent, inevitably, according as our own is habitually careful, or occasionally sloppy.

So we conclude that we need a generous dose of that same medicine which we prescribe for our pupils—drill, repetition, and more drill. How many of us practice reading French *aloud* at home, as a part of our daily preparation? A pianist practices eight hours a day to achieve habitual perfection. We *know* how to pronounce our foreign language correctly, but we do not, at least not all the time. We need more practice, more drill. If we plan a dictation for class, we should read that passage aloud, at home, twenty-five times, to perfect a clear distinct articulation as well as correct pronunciation. The best of it is that such drill requires no expensive apparatus, and it will bring surprising results. It is worth trying.

Next we shall decide that our intonation is still undeniably American. Perhaps it is difficult for us to take private lessons of a native, and textbooks or magazine articles on intonation do not seem to be very effective. Let us invest two dollars in two phonograph recordings of some simple French prose. (Mr. Stowell Goding gave an excellent list of suggestions in the *Modern Language Journal* of October, 1939). Then we get down to work. We proceed to memorize the passage, while playing the record, and repeat it hundreds, yes hundreds of times, until the intonation patterns are inseparably attached to the text, in our memory and in our muscular habit. When we are confident that we can reproduce the record in every detail, we go to one of the institutions, either academic or commercial, that have a recording phonograph: they are everywhere. We make the recording and take it back home to listen. Then we knuckle down to work at it again. Don't think there is a royal road to a perfect pronunciation; no courses at any school can help us very much. We have to do it for ourselves, and we can if we will.

Above all, we teachers must be "pronunciation-conscious." Carelessness is the greatest danger in this matter. Our vigilance over our own speech, as well as over that of our pupils, must not relax an instant. I know a young girl whose French pronunciation was very good, but lately I have noticed errors. I asked her why. "Oh," said she, "I hear it that way in class, and our teacher doesn't often correct it, so I get to saying it, too." Criminal negligence!

Closely related to pronunciation is the second essential on my list for language teachers—oral facility. We may tolerate argument on the question of stressing oral facility for our pupils, but I hope we are all agreed that for the teacher at least, fluency and correctness in speaking the foreign language are a definite "*must.*" But supposing that our college course has not given us the facility which we know we should have, and supposing further that circumstances forbid foreign travel or summer schools, is the case hopeless? Certainly not. I can suggest three different remedies which will work wonders if taken separately, and which can almost guarantee a sure cure if taken together, faithfully, and long enough. Let us diagnose the disease as primarily a lack of confidence, caused by lack of practice; an inhibition, due to lack of habitual speech patterns, complicated by a frequent lack of vocabulary. Now then, remedy number one—read aloud, regularly every day for half an hour, a section of some modern play in rather easy prose dialogue. Act out the parts, make the gestures, and read it over and over until the speech patterns are completely familiar and spring to your tongue under similar circumstances. Remedy number two—teach your classes a part of every lesson by the oral method, at least conduct class business in the foreign language to a very large extent. It will take determination, patience, and a great deal of advance preparation. It will be hard on the class for a while, and harder still on you; but it will be good for the class, and better still for you. You will gain confidence in the doing, because you know that at least you are better than your class; and there is no better way to learn anything than to teach it. Remedy number three—form a conversation group. If you can't do any better, arrange to meet the language teacher in the neighboring village and spend an hour each week just talking the foreign language. Vary and enrich your conversation by reading to each other, or dialoguing short plays, or even dictating to each other. This sort of conversation can be supplemented by phonograph records and radio programs. A letter from a former student told me a while ago of a group she and a few friends had started. Feeling the need of talking French more often, they decided to meet regularly, just to talk: and they call themselves Les Causeuses. The group numbers twenty now, and is most successful. They sometimes have a little program, but for the most part they "just talk"; with noteworthy gains in self-confidence and naturalness.

There are my three remedies—try them for yourselves. In any case, whether we are a beginning teacher or one with many years of experience, we Americans can never feel perfectly satisfied with our fluency and correctness in the foreign language. Constant effort and undiscouraged practice are necessary, not only to make progress, but to keep from slipping backward. As experts, we have a very large duty in the oral mastery of our foreign language.

The third essential on my list is a mastery of the grammar and syntax of the language we teach. Yes, our high school and college teachers have given us a good training in the rules of grammar, and perhaps we have even studied some of the finer points of syntax in a graduate course. We have *almost* completely eradicated the careless mistakes we used to make in verb endings and we watch agreements with a hawk-eye. Irregular verbs no longer bother us especially—class drill has done its work there. Yes, we are rather good—but we have *just begun*. When we write a paragraph of French, no matter how grammatically correct it is, we know that it doesn't *sound* French, and we don't know exactly what to do, to make it sound the way a Frenchman would have written it. We think in English and translate into French far too frequently. It isn't that we are concerned especially about literary style, but we wish we could get the "feel" of the language. But worse than that is the fact that whole sections of the syntax are largely mysteries to us. We still teach our high school pupils that the subjunctive expresses doubt or uncertainty, although we know of dozens of cases of absolute certainty which are still expressed in the subjunctive. We explain the imperfect indicative tense as a tense which describes continued or repeated action, but in our reading we constantly find the past definite expressing continued or repeated action. We give our class rules about adjectives which follow their noun; and find those same adjectives preceding as often as following. We can't break our habit of using the English stress accent to emphasize a word in a sentence, while we know that the French don't do it that way. These are not really the "fine points" of the language, as we tell our pupils—they *are* the fundamental point of view of the language.

What can the teacher do? First of all, I suggest that he become familiar with some of the good manuals of advanced composition. There are several. The best one to begin with in French is Kastner and Marks, *French Composition, Book III*, Dutton. Larousse *Grammaire du XX$^e$*

*siècle* is good; still more advanced is Brunot, *La Pensée et la langue.* These manuals are filled with examples of typical French expression, grouped in convenient form. When we have partially memorized hundreds of these turns of phrase, we should read, carefully and attentively, the prose of the best French stylists—Flaubert, Anatole France, Maupassant, Stendhal, Gide. We seek to recognize in their prose the examples we have learned: and new light begins to flow into our dogmatic, ultra-simplified notions of moods, tenses, word order and agreements. It is a long, slow process. It will take years before we gain confidence in the subject. Yet it is not only a professional duty to continual growth, but it is also one of the most rewarding occupations for a language teacher.

Essential number four for the well-trained teacher—a mastery of vocabulary. Here especially we feel our weakness and insufficiency. What a lot of words there are in a foreign language! Our college training hardly scratched the surface, and we need our dictionary constantly at our elbow. What *must* we do to make our own vocabulary grow?

Reading is the most fertile source of growth. We shall choose modern books, fiction with a recent setting, prose which interests us and which will not become a chore to read. Voluminous pleasurable reading will increase our vocabulary in the most painless way.

Next, I suggest the systematic sudy of etymology. The romance language teacher who has not had a good course in romance philology should lost no time in attacking the subject by himself. Even three years of high school Latin, now very rusty, are sufficient basis for an eye-opening exploration of the origins and families of words, the interrelation of languages, and the fascinating echoes of the phases of civilization through which language has passed. We cannot really approach with enthusiasm the important subject of word-building, or the foreign language's contribution to English, unless we know something of the possibilities of scientific philology. Don't be frightened by the name. If you like words and enjoy playing with them, get Luquiens' *Phonology and Morphology of Old French*. It will fascinate you. And then, haven't you ever looked up an English word in a complete etymological dictionary of English? What surprising ancestors and relatives we find for our commonest words, and what stimulating suggestions for correlation!

But the best way of all to increase our vocabulary is to note on a sheet of paper, regularly every day, three new words which occur in our daily life, and which fill a need in our own everyday expression. Our pupils ask us many words that we don't know, and others constantly present themselves—names of ordinary objects and concepts—"How do you say wrist-watch, swimming pool, zipper fastener; how do you say emphasis, opportunities, etc., etc?" These three new words we will use at every possible opportunity for a week, until we are thoroughly familiar with them; then we let them drop back to their proportionate place in our speech. Do you realize that by this method we can add a thousand words to our active vocabulary every year? Note also that steady increase in vocabulary inevitably brings similar increase in oral fluency and confidence.

My fifth chapter in the essentials for an ideal teacher is a thorough and well-digested knowledge of the foreign civilization. Its study is endless in scope, and constantly enriching, as new information opens up to us new avenues of international understanding.

We must be well acquainted first of all with the country itself, the land of France or Germany or Italy or Spain. Far more than here in America, the land, the soil itself is a part of the people. We must therefore be familiar not only with the physical geography of the country—its mountains, rivers, and seacoasts; but even with its geology, the composition of the soil, and the climate; for all these factors explain why one section of the country grows wheat, while another makes wine, and a third is a populous industrial region. We should not only be able to locate the various provinces, but be versed in their folklore, understand their customs and psychology, distinguishing with benevolent humor the calculating Norman from the expansive Méridional. We should know the cultural, commercial and touristic importance of each region—its exported specialties and its culinary prowess; its memories of the past, its present accomplishments, its place in regionalistic literature. What fun to go on an arm-chair exploration, all one winter, among the mountains and sunny valleys, the tiny villages and luxurious seaside resorts, of the Basque country!

We shall not get far without studying the history of the country, too. But this time we shall not study it as we did for history class in college, cramming long columns of dates and kings and wars, for a final examination. We shall be studying because we want to know and really need to know. Know what? Well, for instance. . . . One day Johnny says to us in class—"Teacher, why was there a French Revolution?" We answer glibly—"Because the king was bad." But down deep we know that that was not the real reason—that the French Revolution was really the overthrow of an entire social system that had been built up for centuries. And so that night we ask ourselves the question—"What were the real underlying causes, the origins, and the results of the French Revolution—what is the meaning for democracy and nationalism of that period in French history?" Then with Taine's *Ancien Régime* as a starter, with Lavisse at one elbow and Hanotaux at the other, we begin to dig, as we never thought we could. Or perhaps other problems, just as important, will occupy our attention—the historical background of contemporary questions—the educational system, the vicissitudes of the duel between church and state, the origins and status of socialism and the labor party, the political organization and the workings of the multi-party system.

In the same way we shall now study the nation's literature. No more shall we slave over lists of authors and titles of books and dates of births and deaths. Who cares? If we need to know them, we can look them up. But we find that we do need desperately to understand the meaning of a literary movement or the reason for the importance of a certain writer. Now, when Johnny asks us what the Renaissance was, we can tell him in clear phrases, because *we* understand. And when he asks why Maupassant is important, we can give him a better answer than "because he was a great writer." High school pupils are sometimes worse than college professors in pursuing us with a persistent—"well, why?" It's no use to talk to Bill Smith about Ronsard, and du Bellay's *Défense et Illustration de la langue française;* but when we explain to him that it was during the Renaissance that people all over Europe began to think that their own popular language was as good as Latin, and set about using it seriously for poetry and essays and even religion and philosophy, then we are accomplishing something.

I believe firmly that a modern language teacher must have a thorough and understanding knowledge of the foreign literature. But I believe that the prospective teacher's college course should not be exclusively or even largely composed of literary history; and secondly, that the literature should be presented as the expression of, and the key to, the growth and meaning of the foreign civilization down through the centuries. The development of thought, of a national spirit, of humanism, classicism, the treatment of the individual and his relation to the problems of society, the concept of the universal, the themes of personal revolt and self-expression—these are the things that any teacher needs for his own background. They should be related intimately to the growth of the arts in corresponding periods—architecture, painting, sculpture, music, even tapestry and porcelain and furniture, will furnish clues for the interpretation of the nation's mind.

Above all else, we must remember that our teaching of a great *modern* foreign civilization must keep it modern, i.e., correlated to our own twentieth century, and to the interests of our modern American youth. Infinite harm has been done to our subject by the constant emphasis on the medieval and the picturesque. After an hour spent on the quaint peasants and their coiffes and wooden shoes, our pupils' reaction is likely to be—"What a dead place. I'm glad I live in America where we have autos and don't have to wear costumes!" I dare say that more people have derived a favorable idea of modern France and the spirit of its youth from the English translation of Saint-Exupéry's ***Wind, Sand and Stars,*** than from the efforts of hundreds of us French teachers. And if you haven't read Jean Giono's ***Regain*** on which the beautiful and successful movie film ***Harvest*** is based, you'd better do so very quickly, or your pupil will know more about an important contemporary French writer than you do. Truly we have a large task, to fit ourselves for teaching; and it has only begun when we start to teach.

I shall only allude to the question of methods of teaching. Here again the real training begins after college. With courses in education and modern language pedagogy behind him, the teacher sets about shaping his personal method, in actual practice, according to the circumstances. What interests me is whether the teacher stays alive and continues to shape his method, or whether he gradually lies down in his comfortable rut and permits his job to shape him and finally to strangle him. Do we make full use of the many ways of keeping up to date—teachers' meetings and conferences, modern language journals and professional publications, the local chapter of our national society? Do we seize the opportunity to talk over our problems with colleagues, so as to profit by their experiences, or does pride hold us back? Are we actively participating in community educational projects; are we represented in committees for surveys, and in projects for curriculum revision? We may be sure that our rivals are; and it is the blindest of ostrich optimism if we are not. Are we immediately cognizant of new procedures or accessories, and do we petition at once for the most recent teaching aids, or do we wait until all the other departments of the school have put in their bids? Commissioner Loomis of the New York State Department of Education said in New York a year ago, "It is probably unfortunate for the foreign languages that for so long they enjoyed positions so impregnably protected that . . . teachers were free from the necessity of giving thought to what they did, why they did it, or what the outcomes were, if any." Now, we modern language teachers must be alive, on our toes, must know where we are going, and how to get there.

The last item, and the most important, on my list of ideals for the language teacher, is also the most intangible, for it concerns, not what he has studied or done, but what he *is*. Past training or future plans mean little when a teacher stands before his class, unless he can show the results in himself. He must possess a rich store of mature knowledge, untiring energy and vigor, contagious enthusiasm for his subject and his profession as a teacher, limitless patience, human understanding and sympathy. All this we call personality, but it is not a gift of the gods to some and denied to others: it is won by undaunted tenacity of purpose, and many hard knocks.

For let us not be misled: the knowledge of the French language does not make a good French teacher. The urchins on the streets in Paris know more French than I. But I must be able to do something for my class that they would be unable to do. Nor can I depend on the language which I teach to supply all the stimulus. Let us admit in all frankness that the language alone—grammar and vocabulary—for its own sake—is not especially interesting to our pupils. As we said at the beginning, a utilitarian subject may succeed for its own sake, in spite of poor teaching. But if a language class is interesting, it is because the teacher is interesting; if a language class is dull, I should doubt if it would be worth your while to invite the teacher out to lunch.

The modern foreign languages are a cultural study. They are not an end in themselves; they are a tool—to sharpen our thinking, to enrich our expression, to help us understand history, literature, and other nations. The modern foreign languages have largely replaced Latin as a vehicle for cultural instruction in our curriculum, and in some respects they are better than English for that purpose. Our growing American culture has its roots in Western civilization, i.e., in European civilization. It is our task to interpret it and to transmit it. How great is our responsibility to possess first of all in ourselves a deep, rich abundant store of that cultural heritage. We must be rooted and grounded in all pertinent information: and at the same time up-to-date, modern in our thinking, able to meet our twentieth century pupils on their own level, building correlation between our subject and their own daily life, understanding their interests and showing them how our subject can contribute to enriching them. We have a serious mission. For many, many of our school children, if they ever get an idea of the meaning of culture, not as twentieth century goods and gadgets, but as a seasoned, balanced maturity of character and spirit, it will be through our language class.

# THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE CANDIDATES IN THE NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS

GERALDINE SPAULDING
*Cooperative Test Service, N.Y.C.*

**[Reprinted by courtesy of David G. Ryans, Associate Director, National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education. Also *MLJ*, XXV, 5, Feb. 1941, 361–367.]**

The preparation of teachers of modern foreign languages has been the subject of a number of studies, some concerned with the professional equipment considered desirable for language teachers, others dealing with the training available to, or required of, prospective teachers in this field. However, little information has been presented about the characteristics of teaching candidates, based on objective measures of the quality of the candidate's general educational background and the extent of his knowledge of his subject, rather than the number of semester hours of courses taken.

Information of this type is now available with respect to the group of teaching candidates, including a number of candidates for positions teaching modern foreign languages, who participated in the National Teacher Examination program in March 1940. This program was made available to school administrators by the National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education; the examinations were administered on March 29–30, 1940, in 23 examining centers. The purpose of the program (the first of an annual series) is to provide a teacher-examination service for the use of school administrators charged with the selection of teachers.

The battery of examinations was planned to provide valid and reliable measures of those phases of a candidate's fitness for teaching which can be adequately appraised by objective tests, such as intellectual aptitudes, ability to understand and express ideas, general cultural knowledge, knowledge of current social problems, professional educational knowledge, and special competence in a teaching field. The following tests, designed to cover the general educational and cultural background of the prospective teachers, were taken by all candidates: Reasoning (nonverbal); English Comprehension; English Expression; General

Culture, including sections on Current Social Problems, History and Social Studies, Literature, Science, Fine Arts, and Mathematics; Professional Information; and Contemporary Affairs. In addition, each candidate for a high school position took two special subject-matter examinations. The 90-minute modern foreign language tests, like the other units of the battery, were constructed by the staff of the Cooperative Test Service, with the advice and assistance of a large group of subject-matter experts and test technicians. The validity and reliability of the tests were satisfactorily established by an experimental tryout of the questions before their use in the final form. Each test consisted of approximately 280 items of the short-answer, five-choice type, covering reading, vocabulary, idioms, grammar, the literature, history, and civilization of the country, certain background information, and awareness of general trends in the profession. A few items on pronunciation, designed to test chiefly the ability to apply general rules, were included, but no attempt was made to provide adequate measures of oral and aural proficiency. It was felt that oral tests could best be handled by the local authorities to whom application was made. Superintendents were urged to make their own provision for estimating oral ability, just as they must consider many other factors not covered by these tests, such as training, experience, and personality factors. It should be noted in this connection that administrators were perfectly free to use the test results in any way they wished, weighting the various test scores and any other factors according to their own needs.

A general report of the results of the first annual administration of the National Teacher Examinations has been published.[1] Of the more than 3,700 teaching candidates who participated in the program, 270 took the French test as one of their two options, 74 took the German test, and 67 took the Spanish test. Further study of the test scores of these special subject-matter groups reveals certain facts about the candidates' qualifications which should be of particular interest to modern foreign language teachers.

Those concerned with teacher training are generally agreed that all prospective teachers, whatever subject they may plan to teach, should have a good general educational and cultural background. It is therefore interesting to compare the scores made on the common examinations by the foreign language groups with those made by other special subject-matter groups. Since all scores are given in Scaled Score units,[2] it is possible to make direct comparisons of the scores of various groups on the different tests. Table I gives the median Scaled Score of each of these subject-matter groups on the different tests of the common battery.

As would be expected, the modern foreign language groups are superior in those subjects having a large verbal or linguistic factor, such as English Comprehension, English Expression, and Literature, but have relatively lower scores in such tests as the nonverbal Reasoning, Mathematics, and Science. The average score of the French group falls below the average for the total group of candidates only on the Science test. The group has particularly high scores on English (both Comprehension and Expression), Fine Arts, and Literature. The high score on Literature may be due partly to the important place which the literature of France holds in world literature, and partly to the larger amount of study of literature which is included in many programs for the training of French teachers. The average scores of the German group are all at or above the general average except the score in Professional Information. The general level of the averages of the Spanish group is lower that the French and German, with scores somewhat below the average of the total group on Reasoning, Current Social Problems, Science, Mathematics, and Professional Information. The general preparation of the individuals who indicated Spanish as either their first or second teaching preference seems to have been somewhat less adequate than that of the French and German groups. However, the Spanish average reaches or exceeds the average of the German group on two sections of the General Culture Test, and on the Professional Information test. It is interesting to note that the French group excels the German in literature and fine arts, while the German group excels the French in science and mathematics. Perhaps these results have some connection with the idea that German is the language of science, while French is the language of belles-lettres.

TABLE I

MEDIAN SCALED SCORES OF THE VARIOUS SUBJECT-MATTER GROUPS ON THE TESTS OF THE COMMON BATTERY OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS

| Group | Number of Candidates | Reasoning | Engl. Compr. | Engl. Expr. | Curr. Soc. Prob. | Hist. | Lit. | Sci. | Fine Arts | Math. | Prof. Inf. | Cont. Aff. | Spec. Subj. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Education in the Elementary School .... | 579 | 57 | 59 | 60 | 56 | 56 | 59 | 56 | 61 | 57 | 59 | 56 | 59 |
| English Language and Literature ........ | 1126 | 59 | 69 | 67 | 65 | 66 | 71 | 60 | 67 | 61 | 64 | 65 | 67 |
| Social Studies ....... | 1090 | 59 | 66 | 62 | 67 | 69 | 66 | 60 | 64 | 61 | 64 | 67 | 64 |
| Mathematics ........ | 463 | 71 | 64 | 61 | 64 | 63 | 61 | 68 | 61 | 79 | 66 | 65 | 68 |
| Biological Sciences .. | 351 | 62 | 65 | 59 | 64 | 63 | 61 | 72 | 61 | 66 | 63 | 64 | 63 |
| Physical Sciences .... | 342 | 66 | 66 | 60 | 66 | 64 | 60 | 77 | 61 | 76 | 66 | 68 | 65 |
| French ............. | 270 | 60 | 69 | 71 | 63 | 63 | 71 | 57 | 68 | 62 | 64 | 63 | 69 |
| German ............ | 74 | 60 | 70 | 69 | 64 | 65 | 67 | 61 | 67 | 64 | 61 | 64 | 70 |
| Spanish ............ | 67 | 59 | 68 | 64 | 60 | 66 | 67 | 56 | 64 | 59 | 62 | 63 | 66 |
| Latin .............. | 148 | 60 | 72 | 74 | 64 | 64 | 72 | 59 | 65 | 65 | 66 | 63 | 73 |
| All Candidates ...... |  | 60 | 64 | 61 | 62 | 62 | 63 | 60 | 63 | 61 | 63 | 63 |  |

While these comparisons show that, as a group, the prospective teachers of modern foreign languages who took these examinations are relatively well prepared, a study of the distribution of scores reveals that the range of ability represented in the group is exceedingly wide, both in the special field and in the common examinations. Scores on the various common examinations range from a Scaled Score of 40 or lower (on some tests as low as 30) up to Scaled Scores of over 90. On the English Comprehension, for example, some individuals who were candidates for positions teaching a foreign language were able to answer correctly fewer than one-fifth of the questions on a test of reading in English, while others were able to answer a large proportion of the questions. Similar differences in ability were evident in the other fields covered by the common examinations.

Of particular interest are the differences in degree of mastery of the special subject matter, as shown by the scores on the French, German, and Spanish tests. Table II shows the distribution of Scaled Scores on these three tests, together with the raw score equivalents. The distribution for French shows that there are a half-dozen candidates, presumably prepared to teach French, who were able to answer correctly fewer than a tenth of the questions on this test—a test including a number of quite easy questions. Included in this same group are a half dozen candidates who were able to answer seven-eighths or more of these questions—some of which were quite difficult. Similar differences in mastery of subject matter are shown in the German and Spanish distributions. In order to give an idea of the nature of these questions, several are reproduced below, for each language, together with figures on the percentage of candidates choosing each of the possible answers. (Correct answers are printed in bold-face type.) Since the reading items consisted of groups of questions based on rather long reading passages (eight or ten lines), no samples of that type are given.

(See Appendix A for sample questions. *Editor's Note.*)

* * * * *

The scores shown in the distributions in Table II include both those who took the indicated language as a first choice and those who took it as a second choice. While it would naturally be expected that the average score on a given language test would be higher for those indicating that language as a first teaching preference than for those for whom it is a second preference, it is interesting to examine the exact relationship between these two groups. Figure 1 shows the distributions for these two groups on each of the modern foreign language tests. While the French and German groups are both about equally divided between first and

### TABLE II

### DISTRIBUTIONS OF THE SCORES OF CANDIDATES ON THE MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE OPTIONS IN THE NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS, IN TERMS OF SCALED SCORES AND RAW SCORES

| *Scaled Score | French | | German | | Spanish | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Raw Score | No. | Raw Score | No. | Raw Score | No. |
| 94 | 254 | 1 | | | | |
| 92 | 248 | 2 | | | | |
| 90 | 242 | 3 | | | 256 | 1 |
| 88 | 236 | 5 | 246 | 1 | 244 | 1 |
| 86 | 229 | 9 | 238 | 3 | 233 | 0 |
| 84 | 223 | 5 | 231 | 2 | 221 | 2 |
| 82 | 215 | 10 | 220 | 5 | 210 | 0 |
| 80 | 205 | 13 | 202 | 2 | 197 | 1 |
| 78 | 191 | 12 | 182 | 5 | 186 | 3 |
| 76 | 172 | 21 | 164 | 6 | 174 | 4 |
| 74 | 160 | 16 | 151 | 5 | 161 | 4 |
| 72 | 150 | 14 | 140 | 4 | 148 | 2 |
| 70 | 139 | 20 | 130 | 4 | 136 | 6 |
| 68 | 129 | 22 | 121 | 3 | 125 | 7 |
| 66 | 119 | 21 | 112 | 1 | 115 | 3 |
| 64 | 109 | 16 | 104 | 2 | 106 | 5 |
| 62 | 100 | 12 | 95 | 3 | 97 | 5 |
| 60 | 90 | 19 | 86 | 7 | 89 | 2 |
| 58 | 82 | 7 | 78 | 4 | 81 | 4 |
| 56 | 73 | 9 | 69 | 4 | 73 | 5 |
| 54 | 64 | 10 | 62 | 2 | 66 | 4 |
| 52 | 55 | 9 | 54 | 1 | 59 | 3 |
| 50 | 46 | 4 | 47 | 3 | 51 | 1 |
| 48 | 38 | 3 | 39 | 2 | 44 | 3 |
| 46 | 31 | 1 | 32 | 2 | 38 | 0 |
| 44 | 25 | 2 | 26 | 1 | 32 | 0 |
| 42 | 20 | 1 | 20 | 1 | 26 | 0 |
| 40 | 14 | 2 | 14 | 1 | 21 | 0 |
| 38 | 9 | 0 | | | 16 | 0 |
| 36 | 5 | 0 | | | 12 | 1 |
| 34 | 2 | 0 | | | | |
| 32 | 0 | 1 | | | | |
| Number | 270 | | 74 | | 67 | |
| Median | 137.18 | | 130.00 | | 116.67 | |
| Mean | 141.84 | | 130.99 | | 122.13 | |
| Standard Deviation | 55.69 | | 64.11 | | 51.89 | |
| Maximum Score | 281 | | 283 | | 283 | |

* The value given is the lowest value falling within the particular interval.

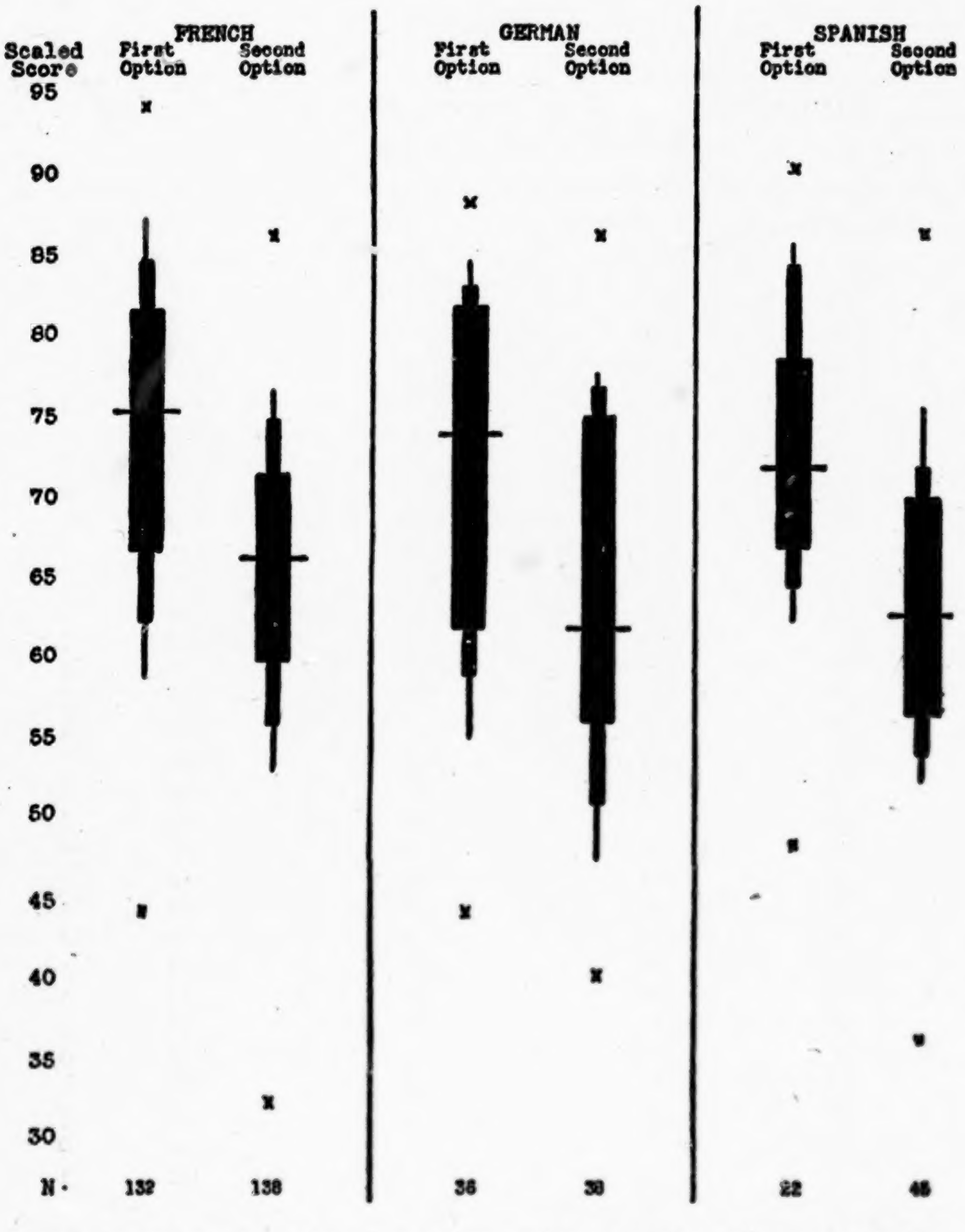

**Figure 1.** Distributions of Scores of First- and Second-Choice Groups on the National Teacher Examination Modern Foreign Language Tests. The bars for each language show the variation among the candidates who elected the language as their first choice of option and those who elected the language as their second choice of option, respectively. The wide portion of each bar represents the range of scores of the middle half of the distribution. The narrow parts extend to the 16th and 84th percentiles, and the thin lines extend down to the 10th and up to the 90th percentiles. The line across bar represents the median. The x's indicate the highest and lowest scores in each group.

second choice, there are twice as many candidates taking Spanish as a second choice as there are taking Spanish as first chocie. There is a difference of about ten Scaled Score points in the averages of the first and second choice groups, the difference being the most pronounced in the case of German. Very few of those who took a particular modern foreign language as a second choice compare favorably with the average of those who took this language as a first choice. In French and Spanish, only the top tenth of the second-choice group achieve scores as high as the average of the first-choice group. On the other hand, so great is the variability in the groups whose *first* preference is one of the modern foreign languages that, except in the case of Spanish, one quarter of the candidates in those groups have scores below the average of the second-choice group.

It is clear that as a general rule a prospective teacher who has majored in a language is likely to be better equipped to teach that language. However, there are among these language majors many individuals who, although they have presumably fulfilled all requirements for a teaching certificate, are still much less well prepared than many of those who have only a minor in that language. It is therefore important in the selection of teachers to consider the actual extent of the candidate's mastery of the subject as well as the number of course credits he has acquired.

## NOTES

1. John C. Flanagan. "An Analysis of the Results of the First Annual Administration of the National Teacher Examinations," *Journal of Experimental Education* (in press).

2. This is a system of translating raw scores onto a scale with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. The units are such as to give a normal distribution with an unselected group, so that a Scaled Score of 50 on an achievement test corresponds to an I.Q. of 100 on an intelligence test. For a complete treatment of Scaled Scores, see *The Cooperative Achievement Tests: A Bulletin Reporting the Basic Principles and Procedures Used in the Development of Their System of Scaled Scores*, by John C. Flanagan, published by the Cooperative Test Service, New York, 1939.

# PERSPECTIVE ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

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(pp. 418–421) *Preparatory Needs in the Field of Professionalized Subject Matter.*—The translation of a creative conception of language teaching into action presupposes adequate preparation of teachers[1] for the task of helping young people grow in ability to use a foreign language for worthy life purposes. This preparation must of necessity include more than offerings designed to develop an acceptable degree of proficiency in reading, writing, and speaking; for the mere possession of a skill does not necessarily imply ability to develop such a skill effectively in others. Neither does it give assurance that the means employed in developing the skills will not defeat the ends that they are intended to serve. It is astonishing at times to find teachers who have taught beginning and advanced classes in a foreign language, four to six hours a day, for ten to fifteen years, yet who cannot themselves boast of any commendable degree of proficiency in actually using the language outside the routine lingo of the classroom. It would seem idle to expect students to grow significantly in ability under the guidance of a teacher whose methods contribute little or nothing to her own personal proficiency in the language. In a day and age when radio programs in foreign languages are common, and excellent phonograph recordings available at little cost,[2] it is entirely possible for a beginning teacher with limited proficiency in the active use of a language to adopt procedures whereby she may grow with her own students. Limited ability to speak, understand, or write a foreign language extemporaneously is not an excuse for evading functional procedures, but the very reason why such procedures should be increasingly used. It can hardly be expected that students, with only one class in a foreign language available to them each day, will grow significantly in ability to use the language effectively if the teacher with four to five class hours at her professional disposal does not improve in and through her own methods over a reasonable period of time.

Beyond such basic courses as may be needed to develop proficiency in the tool uses of language, every candidate for a teaching position in a secondary school should avail himself of offerings that will develop an intimate acquaintance with the literature and culture of the foreign country whose language he expects to teach. If this preparation is adequate, it will yield ready answers to such questions as the following:

1. How have great foreign writers influenced world thought through literature?
2. How have great foreign scientists and inventors contributed to the increase in human comforts and to freeing the world from fear, disease, and superstition?
3. How have great foreigners contributed to the source materials for American culture in art, architecture, music, language, science, education, etc.?
4. What novels, plays, short stories, or nonfiction books, edited for student use, are suitable for reading for a life purpose in elementary, intermediate, and advanced classes?
5. In what respects, and *why,* do the foreign people think, live, or behave differently from others?
6. In what respects are the foreign country and the United States interdependent?
7. How can greater cooperation between the United States and the foreign country be enlisted in the interests of the common good? What facilities are now available for this purpose?

If the information and the insights required to answer these questions are developed in and through reading and discussion in the foreign language itself, the necessary competence in language and subject matter can be developed simultaneously. The need is not for the introduction of new offerings, but rather for a radical change in the content and organization of those offerings which have traditionally been required of prospective practitioners in language as distinguished from research specialists in philology, grammar, or belles-lettres.

Since skills and information serve no significant life purpose unless they are put to some constructive use, instruction cannot be effective unless the teacher is competent to guide learning in the direction of socially effective living in a changing world. The development of this competence presupposes insight into the function of the school as an instrument of social control and improvement in contemporary and past civilizations and cultures, and a clear understanding of the role of the foreign languages in American education. For this reason, educational sociology, social psychology, and offerings in the history and philosophy of education as a means of social control are desirable foundation courses for all teachers of any subject. The school cannot be more than a pawn in the hands of a small but powerful pressure group unless the teachers see their vocation in relation to the fundamental needs of *all* the children of *all* the people and of the changing society in which they live.

Since no two children, with the possible exception of identical twins, are exactly alike, offerings that give insight into the psychology of individual differences, into the ways in which children learn most effectively, and into the symptoms and causes of social, physical, or mental maladjustment are a valuable part of the teacher's professional equipment. Such offerings, when accompanied by personal contacts with young people through practice teaching, club work, or community-service organizations will help the prospective teacher develop the personality and social effectiveness which are necessary if his life is to be consecrated to some more creative purpose than drilling young people into becoming subservient grammatical robots: "moving hands who write for a master," or ventriloquists' dummies who cannot originate or express intelligibly a single idea of their own.

To complete this background of professional preparation for teaching, a comprehensive course in curriculum and instruction in foreign languages is desirable as a means for translating the teacher's resources in subject matter and knowledge of young people and education into concrete terms. A study of the materials available for enriching the learning program, of the successful practices of teachers in different school and community environments, and of the ways and means for bringing the learning process into conformity with the pupils' levels of insight, should form an integral part of the professional course.

## NOTES

1. This vital problem has been the subject of intensive discussion and investigation in recent years. See Henri C. Olinger, "Methodology in Language Teaching," *The French Review*, Vol. XII, pp. 323–348, February, 1939. John L. Tildsley, "Equipment of Foreign Language Teachers in the Senior High Schools," *The French Review*, Vol. XIII, pp. 162–163, December, 1939. Roy E. Mosher, "Merits and Defects in Modern Language Teaching," *Hispania*, Vol. XXII, pp. 19–30, February, 1939. Hugo Giduz, "Good Teaching of French," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIII, pp. 508–514, April, 1939. Emilio L. Guerra, "Training the Beginning Teacher of Foreign Languages," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 163–168, December, 1939. Mark Waldman, "The Selection of Heads of Modern Language Departments, Appointments of Modern Language Teachers, and Their Supervision," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 510–525, April, 1940. A. G. Gutowski, "Survey of Modern Language Teaching in the United States," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 431–442, March, 1940. S. A. Freeman, "What Constitutes a Well-Trained Modern Language Teacher?" *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXV, pp. 293–305, January, 1941. J. R. Pilley, "National Teacher Examination Service," *The School*

*Review*, Vol. XLIX, pp. 177–186, March, 1941. Geraldine Spaulding, "The Achievement of the Modern Language Candidates in the National Teacher Examinations," *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXV, pp. 361–367, February, 1941. Anna P. McCreary and James B. Tharp, "The 1941 French Teacher Census: Teacher Training," *The French Review*, Vol. XV, pp. 493–500, May, 1942.

2. Anna Balakian, "Radio Broadcasting and the Teaching of French," *The French Review*, Vol. XIII, pp. 222–224, January, 1940. Stowell C. Goding, "Neglected Treasures?" *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. XXIV, pp. 34–42, October, 1939.

## POSTWAR RECONSTRUCTION IN EDUCATION: THE TEACHERS

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[From *Modern Language Teaching in the Postwar Reconstruction of Education*, Edited by James B. Tharp, Ohio State University Press, 1943, pp. 53–56.
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Dean Smith has pointed out in the first paper of this series that the public, hitherto an all-too-silent partner in educational organization, has lately become more articulate on matters that affect American ideals, institutions, modes of thought, and leadership. When public support is expected for an educational activity of the schools, the public has the right to ask, "What are the contributions of this activity to American life and how do its results get into the stream of American culture?"

Dean Smith has predicted a wide participation of American men and women in policing, supervising, and rebuilding the devastated portions of foreign countries when peace comes. He believes that political, social, economic, and linguistic isolation will be impossible; that American culture must undertake a major responsibility in re-forming and redirecting a new world culture; that we are likely to find our simplified language pattern inadequate to the task. What are the implications of these queries and predictions for the teachers of modern foreign languages?

Professor Handschin has shown that the political fortunes of foreign countries have been reflected in the rise and fall of American school enrollment in the study of the languages of those countries. He has explained that methods of teaching and priority in objectives have changed with the degree of isolationism and the degree of active participation in world affairs of the American people. It has taken the impact of a war to bring home to us the social relations that bind peoples in spite of language barriers and Professor Jones has shown how those relations may wither or may flourish as we neglect or cultivate and nourish the germ of human brotherhood.

It is obvious that as usual the major burden falls on the schools; and as we accept this educational task, the American people can think in no other pattern than that of democracy for a world educational system. Professor Tharp quoted what he called a Golden Text of Education: "The purpose of the schools in a democracy is the continuous enrichment, improvement, and reconstruction of individual and group living." This formula is broad enough and flexible enough to operate for pre- or postwar education for this nation or any other nation or any combination of nations that wishes to live democratically.

Two recent statements about our schools constitute an immediate as well as a future challenge to foreign-language teachers:

"It is . . . highly desirable that a certain proportion of our total fighting and producing strength should have such a mastery of a foreign language that they can read it, write it, and speak it with a considerable fluency. . . . Where possible, high schools should also provide instruction for selected students in certain languages that are not ordinarily offered at this level—in Russian, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, and Italian, for instance."[1]

"Our schools will need to teach in a very different way than they have heretofore about the peoples of the earth, their ways, their origins, and their contributions to world culture. Features of culture such as music, art, scientific contributions, and social innovations must find free and ready exchange. Above all, there should be an exchange between various cultures of large numbers of people by travel and as students for the purposes of learning and understanding the ways and problems of other groups. We must make a serious effort to know other races and other nations; only in this way can ties between groups be cemented."[2]

These two statements reflect widely different purposes for the contributions which foreign-language teachers can make. The first statement is made with a view to a vigorous, speedy, and successful prosecution of the war. The second statement is made with a view to a careful, progressive, and no less determined prosecution of the peace. But if Dean Smith is right in his view of the postwar world, both aims are eminently valid for our future schools, especially for those persons who as specialists or as laymen will be concerned with the relations of American life to the life of the world.

What kind of teachers do we need for schools which face the task envisaged above? We must remember that our text spoke of "enrichment" as well as "reconstruction" and of "individual living" as well as "group living" (which may be interpreted as crossing national boundaries); and that over all appears the dynamic word "continuous." No one would think for a moment that the major task is given to the foreign-language teachers or is couched in their subject-matters. Theirs is but a small part of the whole education of a democratic people, but it is an important part. The very acceptance of the term "democracy" implies bringing into the educational program the contributions, social and linguistic, in which they possess major competency.

Professor Jameson is zealous for a high degree of language skill in his teachers, as well as for a broad background in the human studies, without which the study of any language—including our own—is meaningless babel and busywork. We certainly want high skill in the teachers who train our surgeons, in the teachers who train the pilots of our bombers and interceptors, in the teachers who prepare future commanders of flat-tops and pig-boats. If part of the time in our postwar schools is to be given to foreign-language study, certainly the teachers must have personal command of the languages to the points of self-confidence and of sensitivity to aesthetic values in the languages.

But these competencies, though requisite, are not sufficient for the job; otherwise, we would need only to import educated, cultured natives of the languages in question to teach our children. Professor Tharp has shown that good teachers must understand and love children and know how they may be expected to behave and learn; that is psychology. Good teachers must know about the homes and families and other social institutions that impinge on the child and on his probable learning capacities; that is sociology. Good teachers should have the "know how"; they should know the variety and richness of materials, the techniques of appraisal and evaluation, the implications of research and investigation in their field; that is methodology. Good teachers should know the part played by their specialization in the whole drama of education, the impact of the public and industry on plans and policies, the synthesis of all these toward the best good for the most people; that is philosophy.

Good teachers need a wide cultural background, a deep knowledge of subject-matter, and a high degree of professional educational training. In the preparation of prospective teachers we have tried to describe the nature of such professional training at Ohio State University by a series of statements to which Professor Tharp has referred, called the "Factors of Competency."[3] We believe that teachers who possess these qualities can be depended upon to carry out the work of instructing those persons who will reconstruct the postwar world. In four major groups, here are our nineteen points:

I. Expressing in Action a Clearly Formulated Social and Educational Philosophy.
   1. Possessing an educational philosophy which functions in teaching.
   2. Contributing to school and community life.
   3. Helping students to clarify their values.
   4. Accepting responsibilities to the school as a whole.
   5. Representing the ideals of the profession.

II. Expressing in Action and Developing in Pupils Effective Personal and Community Relationships.
   6. Applying the principles of healthy social adjustment in personal living and in dealing with others.
   7. Applying the principles of healthful living, mental and physical, to personal living and to teaching.
   8. Interrelating school and community in teaching.
   9. Using the various media of communication: oral and written expression, the fine arts, crafts, and music in teaching.

III. Effectively Promoting the Growth and Development of Boys and Girls.
   10. Consciously applying the principles of child development.
   11. Dealing effectively with individual differences among students.
   12. Consciously applying in principles of functional guidance procedures in teaching.
   13. Participating constructively in the extra-curricular program of the school.

IV. Utilizing All Available Resources—In Men, Materials, and Techniques—In the Learning Process.
   14. Utilizing the process of planning in daily living and in teaching.
   15. Utilizing proficiently a wide rang of materials and methods of instruction.
   16. Continuously evaluating educational aims, processes, and results.
   17. Knowing the subject matter in one's teaching fields and using this knowledge to increase the students' intelligence about the world in which they live.
   18. Carrying out appropriate and effective methods in the management of pupils both in and out of the classroom, and in other relationships.
   19. Applying critical reflective thinking (scientific method) to the solution of problems and teaching for it in school situations.

Good teachers need a sound training in subject-matter, but as Professor Fullington has pointed out, the "subject matters" do not remain static bodies of content—immutable truths that withstand all onslaughts, be they the change of progress or the book-burning fires of reactionary bigotry. It will require a dynamic concept of subject-matter to satisfy that public which Dean Smith has described. The public is not interested in perpetuating any *ism* or in keeping any worthy individuals on the payroll in any sort of academic leaf-raking or erudite shovel-leaning. Instead, the public wants to know, What can the teacher contribute to the job that man now has before him? How quickly can he do it and how economically?

* * * * *

## NOTES

1. Educational Policies Commission. *What the Schools Should Teach in Wartime.* Washington: National Education Association of the United States and The American Association of School Administrators, 1943. p. 18.

2. Kirkendall, Lester A. "Education and the Postwar World." *Educational Record,* XXIV: 45–46 (January, 1943). Prof. Kirkendall is Chairman of the Division of Guidance, University of Oklahoma.

3. Love, L. L. and others. *Student Planning in College.* Columbus, Ohio State University, 1941. pp. 22–29.

# THE TRAINING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS FOR CURRENT METHODS AND OBJECTIVES

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[From *MLJ,* XXX, 7, Nov. 1946, 413–420.]

The use of the word "current" in the title may imply that I am going to discuss some *new* methods and objectives different from those that have existed in the past. It would be more accurate to borrow the terminology of the arbiters of fashion who decide such delicate matters as the length of milady's skirt or whether gloves shall be worn this season, and to say I shall discuss the methods and objectives currently in vogue. It is a sign of something or other that many of our women teachers are more anxious to be in the current fashion in matters of dress than in the nature of their teaching. It must be admitted, however, that just as our ladies, whether from reasons of economy or from sheer obstinacy, might continue to wear a certain style of dress with the firm conviction that the cycle of fashion-change would bring the costume back into vogue in due time, so our language teachers may be content to carry on blithely in their out-of-date ways until the cycle of method returns again to justify their persistency.

No one will deny that fashion cycles exist, and so the owner of a long skirt can be sure that some day skirts will be long again—perhaps when we no longer need a stern O.P.A. to conserve cloth to help clothe needy sufferers in other lands. I, for one, am waiting patiently for the style to return on our college campuses when the young ladies will wear dresses again and leave the blue jeans for the boys. On the other hand it is highly doubtful—at least in the United States outside of Hollywood

—that ladies will ever again wear the hoop skirt and powdered wig and that men will parade their calves in breeches and hose.

I have built up my simile to suggest that the forces in American society which shape the pattern of the schools, dictate their study programs and validate their methods, may have changed to such a degree that some luckless teachers, sitting out the cycle of language teaching methods, may find themselves in wig or breeches in these days of bobby socks and blue jeans. What, then, has been the shift in foreign language teaching, its methods and objectives, and what is the current vogue?

In another paper[1] I have tried to trace how a school subject enters the curriculum to be functional in order to satisfy a definite need of the pupils—social, economic, intellectual—and how changes in the needs may force the subject to adopt secondary objectives which continue to function for a portion of the school body; or how the subject may be forced by further social changes even to carry on for transfer or instrumental objectives only in order to stay in the curriculum. Teachers may accept this shift because they still believe in the effectiveness of the subject matter which caught their interest in their preparatory days and because often they feel it is too late to change to some other teaching field which has come into fashion. Perhaps they decide to sit tight in case the fashion cycle may come around again to their style.

Although the Committee of Twelve of 1898 identified and described three or four alternative methods, the influence of the priority of the study of the ancient languages by careful grammatical preparation and by translation to and from English persisted strongly in the modern languages. The Natural and Direct Methods gained advocates, books were written and the masters of training schools acquired disciples. The Reading Method described by the Committee of Twelve, based on intensive translation, changed to a scanning of many pages in the University of Chicago's earlier Extensive Reading Plan. The Modern Language *Study* of the late 1920's was unable by pupil-test programs or by teacher-questionnaires to establish dependable data on the superiority of any recognized method. When Coleman came forth with a new-type "Direct-Reading" method it was poorly understood and was received with huzzahs from some and with groans from others. Clearly the first modern language investigation did not settle the problems of curriculum and method any more than did the earlier Classical Investigation set at ease the Latin teacher's mind.

For one reason the curriculum experts, taking their cue on educational values from an isolationist-minded public, kept bringing up the *why* of foreign language study, long after we foreign language teachers wanted to get down to details of *when, what* and *how*. This obstructionist tactic, even if we admit a sincerity of motive for reasons of general welfare and national well-being, diverted the competing languages into a scramble for nice-sounding phrases acceptable to the experts who might then let the subjects stay in the curriculum. For a time we soft-pedaled the linguistic phases of the subject: we were the sister of the fair-haired queen of the curriculum, the social studies. We played up *culture* and instrumental values and correlation. Then an economic depression sent hordes of students into shops and laboratories for quick *training* in saleable performances. The competition was vicious; our mortality was terrible.

What was wrong with language teaching to bring about this state of affairs? You say we were not alone to blame, that the other subject matters were equally guilty. True; but we had better consider what we did and why. Was the cause of our failure teacher preparation, scope of objectives, suitability of materials, length of study period, intelligence of pupils, soundness of pupil motivation or thoroughness of their previous preparation, to mention just a few of our well-worn alibis? It could have been any one or all of these reasons in one or another circumstance, but let's not fall into any booby trap.

I am sure heads will nod as many a reader sees each one of our favorite peeves by which we like to excuse our failures, but several heads will certainly bob vigorously at the words "previous preparation." Is it possible you were thinking that children nowadays are not taught the forms of English grammar on which to build the grammar of a foreign language? If so, let's not be trapped. Might not the English teacher say it is an unwarranted assumption to claim that foreign language grammar needs to be developed on the framework of the grammar of the mother tongue? Might they not ask by what right you seek to decide the objectives and methods of English teaching?—unless, of course, you *are* also an English teacher. As I want the English teachers to let us decide what to do about foreign languages, so I respect their decision—perhaps not a unanimous one—to teach English as an operating experience, maximum use with constant clinical adjustment,—to cultivate English, not as a hot-house flower, but as a sturdy field plant open to all weathers. I want to watch their experiment and see how it turns out. When or if the procedure changes, the English teachers will order it.

Shall we blame the soundness of pupil motivation? Why don't pupils like our subject? By no means are all children who dislike foreign language study addlepated and lazy. What *do* children like to do? Couldn't we eavesdrop on some of their club meetings and get ideas for a few stunts that might give us an opening wedge? And why must the class room be dull while the school club is fun? I seriously charge the foreign language teacher and school administrators with lack of proper, even decent, orientation and guidance in directing or permitting pupils to enter foreign language study. There is the mad scramble, even open, barefaced proselyting, by teachers to get pupils to elect this language instead of that one. In most cases, there is no attempt to show what foreign language study is like or to examine each pupil on his state of *readiness* to enter the discipline. Let's sort out the pupils according to background, interests, capacities and individual needs, then make objectives suitable to each pupil-stratum in order to have good motivation all along the way.

Perhaps pupils are not so intelligent nowadays as they were in our day. Bang! another booby trap, and we walked right into it! In the absence of actual statistics I am informed by one of my psychologist colleagues that the average of pupil intelligence has probably risen in the last fifty years. And why not? Consider what our sons and daughters have learned recently in a matter of weeks that we learned poorly in years. Nowadays a ten-year-old boy, who dodges a Cadillac and nearly gets clipped by a Nash, knows without a backward glance that it *was* a Cadillac and a Nash, whereas his father—certainly his grandfather—would only know the car makes by looking at the name plates. No; don't blame it on the dumbness of the pupils; they aren't dumb—just different. Better take the blame yourself and say, I haven't learned how to deal with children like these, but I'll keep trying to find out. If you blame it on the children, nothing happens; you are at an impasse: *no hay paso; circulation interdite.* If *you* take the blame, then you can *do* something.

Perhaps we have not been allowed time enough to do a proper job. In the early days of language teaching four years of Latin was considered the minimum and this allotment of time was readily transferred to the modern languages as each entered the curriculum to perform its definite function in response to a need of society. In fact, some of the language colonies of immigrants succeeded in having their home language taught in the primary grades.

When the junior high school movement early in the century took the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades into separate buildings, with separate administration and the separate aim of general orientation and exploration of the areas of living, rather than the previous all-important aim of preparation for higher and higher institutions of learning, many school systems lowered the starting age of a foreign language, Latin as well as the living languages. A start in the 7th grade would permit six consecutive years of study, would capture the enthusiasm of early adolescence, use its ready memory and the flexible voice mechanisms of younger children. Although Latin instruction did not expect to use the oral-aural aspects of language, and some of the reasons for early beginning do not apply to a dead language, the early start was readily accepted by the classical languages. Since that time the wisdom of that step has been questioned by some educators.

This early start has continued to work well in situations where controlled motivation provides the demand and sympathetic administration allots the time. Most of the private schools and certain city systems like Cleveland, New York City and many others have successfully continued the plan. On the other hand, as competition from other subject areas diminished foreign language demand by society and reduced school motivation, the fourth year dropped off, followed by the third year. The two-year minimum has remained, for school administrators, under advice or perhaps pressure from foreign language teachers, decided that less than two years of study was a waste of time. I know of no other school subject where credit for one year-unit is withheld until completion of a second unit. This looks like a favored position for our subject matter, but some educators think it is not an unmixed blessing.

We have pointed out how loss of time allotment and basic motivation have reduced language study to the function of the receptive skills—reading with some comprehension by the ear—and to the adoption of transfer and instrumental aims. The minimum of time in the typical school program is the one-year or even one-semester course in general language, which is a survey course in language appreciation with no attempt to develop performing skills. In all of the above discussion of time allotment the college semester is considered, with adequate statistical evidence, to be equivalent to a high school year. The typical school program referred to provides 45 or 50 minutes per day for a five-day week, sometimes reduced to three days per week at advanced levels of instruction.

But suddenly comes the war and with it comes intense demand and solid motivation and, moreover, the nation's readiness to spend any necessary amount of money which nobody regrets spending, if we win. In a flash old time schedules were junked. Minimum schedules—to build a bomber, to perfect an amphibious motor truck, to train a pilot, to train a lathe worker, to train an instructor of bayonet techniques, any kind of training: *training*, I said, not education—schedules were halved, then halved again, and when persons were finally frantic for more time the schedules were quartered. And we produced; we accelerated, we selected, we filtered out, and we ruthlessly flunked out the incapable, the disinterested, the mal-motivated, the lazy, and the unworthy.

We won; but it was no miracle. We could have done it before and we could do it again, given the demand, the motivation and the money. Much of the organization, the innovation of techniques, the coordination of activities was directed by former school teachers. They had the know-how all the time.

Acceleration itself is not new; many of us experienced it during the first World War. I had the privilege of being one of several thousand American soldiers who were sent to French universities for four months in the spring of 1919. With no previous study of French—after my four years of high school Latin, I had taken German during the two years of college I had completed—I had picked up enough French by myself after landing in France to be placed in the intermediate level of instruction at Grenoble where I was sent. Small classes of ten met daily for an hour of conversation; the elementary level met two hours a day. The intermediate level had another hour daily in classes of 30 or 40 students for grammar study and composition, mostly translation from English to French. The few who were able to be classified as advanced students attended regular lectures. Everybody of every level had to attend a certain number of lectures a week, regardless of how much he understood. Here was military discipline providing for the learning of French by a process of osmosis or absorption. In addition, practically everyone had his *échange*—usually a charming young lady, in which case most of the talking was in English. Since I was serious about learning French, my *échange* was sixty years old. We met every day for tea and spoke only French all the time. Moreover, all the soldier-students lived in French homes, ate at French *pensions,* went to parties, read the newspapers, perhaps even dreamed in French. Do you wonder, then, that when I re-entered college and I decided to major in French, that I was started in third-year courses, after only four months of study?

You all know how the recent acceleration in language study worked out in the A.S.T.P. There was a rigid selection of students on the basis of capacity to learn. There was strong motivation—promise of future service and army status (largely repudiated later, we must admit) and threat of return to the ranks and unpleasant rifle-toting in case of failure. There was ample time allotment—some fifteen contact hours a week. There were good materials, good instructors, good everything. It was no miracle; we knew how before and could do it again—if we want to bad enough. Do you wonder that I am impatient at the excuse: "they don't allow us *time* enough to teach a language so it will function as a tool and thus at the same time bring the highest possible cultural return"?

In normal times it is more pleasant and more comfortable to do our learning—as well as our working—a little more leisurely, but if we put our minds to it we could juggle the time we have and use it in solid chunks and do a good job of accelerated teaching. I believe that such concentrated learning will be retained as long as the same amount of spaced learning, if it gets equivalent nurture and exercise. Anything—even a muscle—dies from disuse.

There is not much to say about suitability of material, except that it is the American way to junk inefficient machines and to build new ones. We have the know-how and we have the money to buy what we need. The American system of localized control of education, through elected boards of education which hire administrative officers, gives to the taxpayers whose children attend school the right to spend money for materials. By and large the materials exist for all types of teaching and when a new type appears the book publishers soon produce the working materials. For example, in recent months many new books for the oral, conversational approach—the current vogue in certain favored circumstances—have been published, much of the content having been experimentally used by the A.S.T.P. and in regular classes also taught by the A.S.T.P. instructors.

The scope of objectives will continue to be the most controversial matter language teachers must settle. Just as in labor disputes, we want much but for the time being we'll settle for less. We have had our hard times but just now our stock is rising. Many thousands of young men have had a look at other parts of the world and are ready to assume a world attitude in human affairs. This feeling leavens the state of mind of the public and there is a reviving demand for foreign language tool-skills that will function. School children must be guided to sense and understand this demand and hence be motivated to undertake and to persevere in a long hard road of preparation. We could accelerate and get satisfactory quick training. It is better to go up a slow gradient and get the skills in a framework of general culture.

In deciding on this objective for language tool-skills, we must realize that only in the most favored situations some of the few pupils who complete high school will succeed in accomplishing the objectives of performance. Among the selected students who go on to college, others can procure operating skills. In less favored situations the objective of reading as a functioning skill must be accepted and the time allotted—usually two years—must be used effectively to produce valid returns. Finally we ought to study carefully the possibility of teaching language and languages for purposes of appreciation. If it means new materials, new objectives, even new teachers, we can produce all that is needed if we want to bad enough.

Have we failed for lack of good teachers? The answer is yes, and no. No, in that foreign language teachers in the main have not understood the scope of the job of foreign language teaching and have often tried to do the right thing in the wrong place. No, again, in that the administrators have not allowed outlet to the teaching our people knew how to do and the American curricular system in its diversified richness has not enabled the continuity and concentration we need for certain outcomes. The answer is yes, that we have our share of stagnant shirkers. Yes, we have our share of inexperienced class-watchers and those who are soured on the world and on children in particular. But we have more than our share of teachers who try to teach without knowing adequately the subject they teach. The school system of control, cautious state certification, and even the valuable law of school tenure which, enacted for a necessary social security for teachers, has forced many an unprepared teacher to step into an unexpected vacancy—all of these permit inadequately prepared teachers to instruct our children.

The war and its aftermath of reconversion has removed thousands of teachers from our schools and many will never go back to the classroom. In the emergency, state departments of education issue thousands of temporary certificates and the school principals must hire the holders to fill vacancies. So long as the demand for teachers far exceeds the supply, and salary scales do not attract sufficient trainees, the hiring standards will be low. During the late 30's we had an oversupply of teachers, but the complicated system of subject combinations necessary to place beginning teachers militated against satisfactory preparation in any one of the subjects. At such a time the certification laws should have become more stringent to produce better teachers. Instead, in some cases, they loosened up to permit more flexible subject combinations. We could reduce the range of subject offerings in the high schools, in order to concentrate on training better teachers in fewer subjects, but that is harder to do than to balance the national budget—and who can do that?

The current vogue of emphasis on the oral approach requires a teacher competent in the oral skills, a performer. Such a teacher should know the techniques of developing good pronunciation and of promoting oral expression. These are the hardest of all objectives and should not be attempted by ill-trained teachers. Speaking is a social activity: there must be a listener. Moreover, the audience situation must be motivated. We can, and must, in order to secure the maximum use of practice time, employ choral repetition in classes. Time is too precious to make a whole class listen while one pupil speaks, unless the material is worthy of the audience situation, which is rare. We need recorders or sound mirrors, so one pupil can talk and listen to himself and not disturb his neighbors. Failing that, we must work by twos and by groups. Space does not permit a catalogue of oral-teaching devices; I mention only enough to show how large these skills and instructional techniques loom in the current objectives if we would develop oral skills to tool quality.

The methods employed in the oral classes of the A.S.T.P. were largely not new; they were old ones rearranged to fit a new situation having a specific objective, the creation of oral speaking fluency. The use of these methods and the background of preparation they entail in the teacher will be harder than ever to develop in our teachers without some sort of foreign residence such as my own experience at Grenoble, or such as a group of my students had last winter in Mexico. There is a project to establish a regular "Winter Quarter in Mexico" for undergraduate students and I hope Ohio State University will lead the way. The Junior Year Abroad is resuming operations and all sorts of summer schools are functioning. The sessions at Middlebury, Mills, Western Reserve and Duke—to mention the ones I know best—are the nearest substitute that can be had for foreign study. All such schools should be used widely by all who can afford them.

I have purposely ended the discussion on the crux of the situation, the preparation of teachers. Workshops, in-service institutes, summer study and travel will improve the product that the universities and teachers colleges can turn out. But no outside force can really create the motivating attitude that makes someone want to teach well. It must be an inner urge to serve within a person who loves children. We Americans can do what needs to be done, and that quite promptly and effectively, if we *want* to bad enough.

## NOTES

1. "Are Foreign Languages Tool or Cultural Subjects?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXV, October 16, 1946.

# 11 : THE A.S.T.P. AND AFTER

## A STATEMENT OF INTENSIVE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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[From *H*, XXVII, 1943, 65f.]

Inasmuch as there is bound to be—in fact has already appeared—a certain amount of criticism of "extravagant claims" alleged to be made by the advocates of modern intensive language teaching, it seems wise to set down the rather modest "claims" which these advocates really do present. They follow:

(1) The "dribble method" of learning languages (three hours a week for years) has failed to give students practical command of any language. It may, of course, have had other educational values, but the need now is for practical speaking command.

(2) Better results are to be obtained by more concentrated use of the students' time (a minimum of ten hours per week). Only continued experiment will give us exact knowledge as to when, in the increase in concentration, a period of diminishing returns sets in. Our present *guess* is that, if the study is to occupy three months or more, about twenty-five hours a week of classroom contact and supervised study is the optimum, though there are varying opinions among the advocates with respect to this.

(3) Major emphasis at first should be placed upon the acquisition of spoken language. There is a variety of opinion as to exactly when study of the written language should begin, but this difference does not affect the general principle.

(4) Language instruction should be controlled by a trained technical linguist. In the ideal case he would be completely bilingual and an inspired and inspiring teacher. Unfortunately these qualities are not combined in one person sufficiently frequently to meet present demands. Moreover, whenever they are so combined we have a person so valuable

that his time should not be inefficiently used in doing the incessant drill-work necessary for proper control of spoken language. This drill-work should be carried on by native speakers who need only good intelligence, good ears, an acceptable dialect, some small training, and tight control. Since the optimum condition is too infrequently met to supply the language needs of the present moment, recourse has to be had to such approximations to it as are possible under the existent local circumstances.

(5) There is probably no new *method* of language training. It is most likely that the successful features of the alleged new method have been implicit in all good language teaching. Since, however, there have been hitherto practically no materials planned for *intensive* study of *spoken* language, there are now appearing some new *materials*. These are in varying stages of experiment and trial and will doubtless be greatly improved with experience. Intelligent and thoughtful criticism of them will be welcomed.

(6) Language is not to be taught "without grammar," nor "as a child learns his native tongue." A student should learn all the grammar useful to him, but he should learn it scientifically, not as a kind of theology, and he should learn it only when and as it becomes useful to him. Moreover, he should not learn language as a child, but with all the tools that maturity, intelligence, and education have given him.

(7) Within the limits of agreement on the need for intensive instruction in spoken language by scientifically-trained personnel, there is room for wide divergence as to detail and even for the personal eccentricities of teachers.

(8) The expression "intensive language" is sometimes used in a context which implies the inclusion of area study. This is not a necessary, though it is sometimes a useful, extension of the term. We all—even the alleged "mechanists"—acknowledge that a language does not operate in a vacuum.

# APPLICATIONS OF A.S.T.P. METHOD TO CIVILIAN TEACHING

### *Generally Expressed Opinions of Administrators, Course Directors, and Instructors*

[From *A Survey of Language Classes in the A.S.T.P.*, Commission on Trends in Education, Modern Language Association of America, N. Y. 1944, pp. 28–29.]

After questioning administrators, course directors, and instructors in institutions where the language curriculum of the A.S.T.P. was in operation, the Survey Group noted wide agreement that certain principles and elements of this curriculum could fruitfully be introduced into post-war language teaching for civilians at the college level. Those interviewed agreed that certain objectives of A.S.T.P language training, admittedly designed to fill practical military needs, would naturally be abandoned; and they reaffirmed their belief that the understanding and appreciation of foreign cultures is a primary aim of language study in a liberal education. Their experience with the achievements of the A.S.T.P. language curriculum had convinced them, however, that the acquisition of all-round language proficiency, including the ability to read, involves a command of the spoken form of the language as an initial objective. In recognition of this principle, they were ready to recommend, in so far as might be practicable, adoption of an intensive plan of language instruction, to include the following elements:

1. A large number of contact hours per week, of which a lesser number would be devoted to grammar work, and a greater number to conversational drill work.
2. Very small classes (ten students or less) for drill work, sectioned according to the ability and progress of the individual students.
3. Some outside preparation by the student for grammar classes, though less than in non-intensive courses; little or no outside preparation for drill sessions.
4. The use of native, or completely bilingual, speakers for drill work.
5. The use of supplementary aids, including mechanical apparatus such as motion pictures, phonograph records, recording machines, magnetic-tape recorders, radio, and telephone.
6. The provision of a living background for the study of the language, through extra-curricular activities, such as language houses, language tables, and language clubs within the institution, as well as social contacts with foreign-language groups in the community.

In order to implement such a program of language study, it was felt that certain types of teaching materials, at present not generally available, are needed. These include:

1. New textual materials specially designed for use in intensive courses, such as:
   a) Elementary grammars which avoid technical terms, place less emphasis on translation, and present graded structural material keyed to drill work in conversation.
   b) More collections of reading materials, suitable for use at the intermediate level, representing various aspects of the foreign culture concerned, calculated to satisfy students' special intellectual interests and provided with ample exercises to aid oral discussion.
   c) More adequate word-lists, of which some would be topically arranged.
2. More mechanical apparatus, in the nature of audio-visual aids, at reasonable cost, including:
   a) Records specially designed to teach pronunciation, and albums of records incorporating the drill material of the textbooks.
   b) Efficient recording machines.
   c) Magnetic-tape recorders.
   d) Moving pictures designed to be integrated with instruction in the language.
3. New devices and methods for objectively testing aural and oral proficiency.

## INTENSIVE LANGUAGE STUDY AS A PART OF THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

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[From *GQ*, XVII, 4, Pt. 1, Nov. 1944, 226–240.]

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According to these directives, the intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. was to have the following specific features:

(1) A large number of instructional hours ("contact hours") in a relatively short period of time.
(2) Small numbers of students per class.
(3) Combination of presentation of language structure and conversational practice.
(4) Emphasis on drill and on the formation of linguistic habits.
(5) Phonemic analysis and transcription.
(6) Employment of native informants.
(7) Specific objective: command of the colloquial spoken form of the language.

There is not one of these features that could alone be termed a methodological discovery or even a pedagogical innovation—what is novel about the program is the suggested combination of these particular features, the practical organization in matters of instructional time, size ✓

of classes, etc., and the orientation with regard to the objectives of language instruction. As a matter of fact, the wise and undogmatic planners of the program were so modest as to stress the point that their methodological "remarks" were not to be taken in a prescriptive sense. It is thus somewhat surprising and, indeed, regrettable that a good many curious notions have been spread concerning the methods, aims and achievements of the intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. It is necessary, therefore, in discussing the individual features, that we first state the actual practice of intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. before we turn to our principal question of how to incorporate them into the college curriculum.

(1) *"Learning languages in a hurry?"* The war emergency needed foreign language experts and needed them in a hurry. Therefore the language training organized by the Army with the advice of the American Council of Learned Societies had to be condensed into nine months. It was this short period which impressed the general public and unleashed a flood of praise in the daily press, but, at the same time, inspired either an unhealthy awe for the magic effects of the "new method" or a certain suspicion as to the solidity of the A.S.T.P. results.[1] Most of these outsiders, however, overlooked the other side of the picture, namely the vast increase of instructional hours from the traditional quota of 3, 4, or 5 per week to 15 and later 17 in the intensive program. In fact, the actual number of instructional hours in the intensive program exceeded by far the time spent in class under the traditional system. For the intensive program of 9 months or about 36 weeks with 17 hours per week yielded a total of 612 instructional hours as compared with 300 hours in the traditional language study covering two or three years of college (first year: 30 weeks at 4 hours=120 hours, second year: 30 weeks at 3 hours=90 hours, third year: 30 weeks at 3 hours=90 hours).

Even if we include the time spent on home preparation, we find that the total number of hours spent on language study within the nine months of the intensive program exceeded that of the traditional two- or three-year course in college. Theoretically, in view of the rather crowded roster of the student-soldiers, little or no home work at all had been envisaged in the A.S.T.P., in reality one, two, and even three hours of the trainee's "study time" or of his "free time" were needed, every day, for pronunciation exercises, memorizing, conversational practice with roommates, etc., adding up to 6 (12, or 18) hours per week or a total of 216 (432, or 648) hours during the nine months, i.e., a grand total of 828 (1044, or 1260) hours of class and home work in the A.S.T.P. If we assume, on the other hand, for the traditional three-year course in college, that for every hour in class the student is expected to spend 1½ (or 2) hours on preparation at home (although he rarely does), his expected home work would add up to approximately 450 (or 600) hours, i.e., to a grand total of 750 (or 900) hours of class and home work in the three years of the traditional course. No matter how much or how little we may be impressed by such mathematical statistics, it is evident that the trainee in the A.S.T.P. spent considerably more hours on language study within nine months than the student of the traditional course within the 36 months of his three-year study.

This enormous concentration of what is therefore rightly called the "intensive" course was dictated by the war-emergency. It is a happy coincidence, however, that there has always been a strong feeling among language teachers [2] and linguists [3] alike that such concentration of language study, especially during the initial phase and up to a certain limit, is far superior to the "dribble method" of spreading language instruction thinly over two or three years,[4] and that a dose of, let us say, two hours daily instead of one yields more than just double the results.

If we now turn to the question of whether and how to work intensive language study into the college curriculum, we find the language teachers unanimous in their belief that the present miserly allotment of 3 or 4, rarely 5 hours a week for language instruction is insufficient and that, therefore, the adoption of this particular feature of intensive language study, *viz.*, an increase in weekly "contact hours," is highly desirable.[5] But it would have been difficult to find a way of increasing substantially the number of hours of language instruction in college without encroaching upon other required or recommended subjects,[6] had it not been for the clever suggestion which, if I am not mistaken, was first made by the Council of Learned Societies, namely, that part or all of the student's time which he is expected to spend on preparation at home be converted into additional instructional time, or, rather, into practice hours similar to those of the intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. and comparable, in our college rosters, to the laboratory hours scheduled for science courses, such as Botany, Chemistry, Zoology, and others.[7] Thus, instead of reserving out of the student's weekly study time, let us say, four hours for class work and six (or eight) hours for home preparation in language study, i.e., a total of 10 (or 12) hours per week, in the traditional beginners' language course, the proposed intensive language course would consist of 10 "contact hours" or 5 sessions of two consecutive hours per week in class, and ½ hour daily or about 2½ hours per week for home preparation, i.e., a total of approximately 12½ hours for intensive language study per week.—Whether such a course should carry 4 credits per term, i.e., the same amount of academic credit as its "traditional" counterpart, or whether we are willing to allow it as many as 5 or 6 credits per term (as we are inclined to do at Pennsylvania) depends upon our relative evaluation of the work done in the two courses.

To be sure, compared with the 17 (at first 15) hours of intensive language study under the A.S.T.P., a 10 hour intensive course in college represents a considerable reduction. However, in the first place, we do not know at what point the law of diminishing returns sets in, whether at a total of 17 or of 12 or of 8 contact hours per week.[8] Secondly, if the reduction in time should actually slow down the progress to a considerable extent, this loss could be made up, in college, by a longer total time of language contact, during the second and third (possibly fourth) year.

This and similar proposals have been received rather favorably in various quarters,—as a matter of fact, an increase in instruction time for all language beginners' classes, or for certain special sections of them, has been under serious consideration in many of our leading, time-honored educational institutions. In some places such classes or sections have already been approved or even put into practice on an experimental basis.

The technical problem of how to roster a 10 hour language course in Freshman (or Sophomore) schedules without conflicting too much with other required courses is not insoluble, to judge by a number of tentative rosters worked out for students at Pennsylvania, with the intensive language course scheduled daily in two consecutive hours, MTWTF from 9 to 11, or from 8 to 10, keeping the hours from 11 to 1 (or from 10 to 1) free for other required or elective courses.[9] Further possibilities of rostering the intensive language course would be from 2 to 4 or from 3 to 5 in the afternoon, although the afternoon hours are naturally less desirable. If necessary, even a splitting up of the course into two separate hours every day might be considered without seriously jeopardizing the students' progress in the course, especially if the two hours are planned to be entrusted to two different instructors.[10]

More serious seems to be the question raised in administrative quarters as to whether a 10 hour language course, in addition to the formidable array of other required courses, would not unduly reduce the number of subjects which a student may choose in his (or her) Freshman year for the important purpose of a general orientation. However, as long as we think in terms of 6 credits [11] (possibly only 4 or 5), the student's roster would actually be "burdened" only by 2 (or even less) additional credits, an increase which could hardly be criticized for seriously narrowing the student's choice of subjects in his Freshman or Sophomore year.

(2) *"A tutorial system for the elite?"* The drastic restriction of student numbers in the "drill sections" must no doubt be ranked second in its bearing upon the conduct and success of the intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. Indeed, college professors and especially high

school teachers with often 30, 35, and even 40 students in one class, can hardly be blamed for the feeling, that, given classes with a maximum of ten, and often only six or eight, they might have well achieved comparable results! On the other hand, they are hardly correct in assuming that the A.S.T.P. trainees represented an absolutely superior group from the viewpoint of linguistic aptitude and general preparation, and that the experience in the A.S.T.P. is therefore inconclusive for language teaching in general. In my experience, a class of A.S.T.P. trainees, with the exception of a thin sprinkling of older and maturer but therefore also less adaptable men, was not much better or worse than the average class of students at Pennsylvania. But who in the world (the critics continue), except the Government itself, could afford the luxury of such semi-tutorial language teaching to the crowds of civilian students? Indeed, here lies the most crucial discrepancy between the intensive language study of the A.S.T.P. and the "traditional" language teaching at most of our educational institutions. Perhaps, one extenuating fact is generally overlooked, namely that in the grammar sessions of the intensive course, i.e., in 5 out of 17 hours per week, very large numbers of students, 40, 50, occasionally as many as 80 and 90, were accommodated. But the fact remains that in the case of high schools the adoption of this particular feature of the A.S.T.P. would involve a very considerable budgetary increase. On the college level, where the "traditional" language classes have mostly been limited to 20 (or 25), and quite often have been somewhat below this maximum, the difference is less serious. If we consider, furthermore, the large attendance possible in the grammar hours, the additional credits earned by the students enrolled in the course, a certain economizing due to the fact that drill sections will rarely have to be entrusted to men of advanced professorial rank, and, finally, the possibility of raising the maximum attendance of a drill section to 12 in the case of German and other languages offering little difficulty in matters of pronunciation,—then, perhaps, even the vital factor of small classes may be introduced in the college curriculum with only very slight modifications and without alarming financial reverberations. . . .

(3) *"A glorified Berlitz school?"* The emphasis on the conversational and inductive approach has led many to believe that in the intensive language course of the Army grammar was condemned in principle and therefore ignored in practice, a suspicion which in the light of the Army directives and of the actual operation of the program is completely unfounded. After all, nearly one third, i.e., 5 hours out of 17 (at first 15) of instruction time were specially reserved for "demonstrations on the structure (pronunciation, grammar, syntax, word formation,

etc.) of the language" (cf. above). This provision meant that during the 36 weeks of the program, the soldier-students were exposed to as many as 180 hours of grammar presentation—I don't know of any language study of the "traditional" kind which in the course of its two or three years would reserve an equal amount of time to grammar. At Pennsylvania, e.g., only the first term of the beginners' course in German is devoted exclusively to grammar (15 weeks at 4 hours = 60 hours), of the second term only about 10 hours; at the "intermediate" stage grammar is restricted to one hour per week or 30 hours per year, and similarly in the "advanced" or third year—a grand total of about 130 hours of grammar in the three years of language study.

This explicit recognition of the value of teaching language structure, in addition to the obvious emphasis on conversational drill, shows how foolish it would be to confuse the men who planned and taught the intensive language course under the A.S.T.P. with certain amateurish linguists or "progressive" pedagogues who fancy that a 20 or 30 year old student could and should learn a language "the baby way," in *every* respect. On the contrary, no one in the intensive language study of the Army was blind to the obvious fact that the conditions under which the infant and the grown-up student acquire a language are different, that each has certain advantages over the other, the most important, on the part of the grown-up student, being the short-cut of abstraction, which allows him to systematize a large number of similar linguistic phenomena in a general "grammatical" category or "rule." That is why thoughtful and experienced language teachers have never done without "grammar," and why resourceful and ambitious language students have often worked out their own "rules."

On the other hand, it is true that the planners as well as the teachers of the intensive language program seemed to have been singularly agreed that grammar should be deduced from actual speech,[12] that grammatical rules should be remembered in the form of practical "stock-examples" rather than abstract formulations,[13] and that grammar as a whole was no aim in itself but only a means to an end, the ultimate end of language mastery. That was the place to which grammar had been relegated by many language teachers even under the "traditional" system—so there is little reason why this aspect of the intensive language study, from the viewpoint of the college curriculum, should cause any concern or any radical reorientation. If, e.g., a 10 hour intensive course were planned on the college level, 2 or 3 hours could be assigned to the presentation of grammar and the remaining 7 or 8 to conversational practice, in accordance with the ratio of 5:12 under the A.S.T.P. Written composition would naturally come in at a certain point.

(4) *"Speak-easy methods?"* A frequently encountered criticism suspected the A.S.T.P. of introducing a "painless" and "random" kind of language study by "simply making the students talk." Indeed, if the program succeeded in making the students actually speak the foreign language, this in my opinion was no small feat. And nobody who has seen the program in operation or participated in it as an instructor or student would want to insinuate that it achieved this in a painless, leisurely way. . . . The very fact that there were never more than 10 students in a drill section (even the "back row" afforded no rest or protection!), and that the entire period was spent in speaking and hearing, in imitation, mutual questioning and answering, repetition in chorus, individually, and in groups, dialogues of two, or staged conversations of three and more,—this incessant give and take kept everybody under pressure from the first to the last minute. Moreover, the students had to be constantly on edge realizing that much of the memorization of words, phrases, and idioms had to be done right in class.[14] As Dean H. G. Doyle put it: "It is obvious that no one goes through such a program without realizing that he is working—hard—as he never has worked before at any intellectual task."[15]

Nothing was so relentlessly insisted upon in the intensive language study of the A.S.T.P. as *practice*—practice which forms linguistic habits, "automatic reflexes," as the Army put it. The learning of grammatical rules and their labored application from case to case, as frequently practiced under the "traditional" method, may be a healthy exercise in logic but it will never lead to a facility in either writing or reading or speaking. After all, repetition and drill and memorization, although condemned as "mechanical and dull" by certain pedagogical theories, have always been advocated by sane linguists and language teachers of any school. "I venture to say that more progress can be made in mastering a language by committing one page to memory—accurately and thoroughly—than by 'translating' fifty pages in the customary way."[16]

At the same time, accuracy and grammatical correctness, as required in the Army directives, were not neglected. Untiringly, instructors and informants continued to correct the utterances of their students. This was done in a casual way and, unless an important structural principle was involved, without stirring up at the slightest provocation all the backwaters of the grammatical reservoir.[17] Equally exacting was the rapid accumulation of a vast store of words, sentence patterns, and idioms which the students had to be ready to reproduce instantly and verbatim; in the three months of the last term, the A.S.T.P. trainees at Pennsylvania, e.g., had to absorb, for active and passive use, 150 new words per week or a total or almost 2,000 words, culled from newspaper reading, arranged topically, and familiarized through conversation in class.[18]

There are many, however, who feel that this kind of conversational drill is not suited for college students, but, if at all, should be taken care of during the elementary phase on the high school level. The answer to this objection is simple: if with the spreading of the social sciences in many of our high schools even the elementary phase of language teaching is more and more left to the colleges, we shall have to employ on the college level those methods which are thought best from the viewpoint of language teaching, no matter whether the students happen to be 16 or 18 years of age.[19] Incidentally, what is often forgotten in discussions of this point, our college students, Freshmen and Seniors alike, definitely prefer the conversational approach, and, if the choice had been theirs, would have hardly stooped to the "academic" goal of a reading knowledge. Of course, we realize that the proclamation of a reading knowledge as *the* goal of language training was an act of resignation in the face of the steadily curtailed allotment of time for language study, that it represented the ideal of very few language teachers, and that many of our colleagues bravely continued to indulge in some conversational practice, much to the delight of most of their students. This is also the reason why the sudden call for conversational textbooks, which were needed for the intensive language program of the Army, e.g., in German did not find us completely unprepared: there were the two books by C. R. Goedsche, *Sag's auf Deutsch* and *Wie geht's,* there was the collection of phrases and idioms in topical arrangement by Danton-Danton, *Wie sagt man das auf Deutsch?*—others followed with amazing speed, such as Rehder and Twaddell's *Conversational German.* These would offer a very suitable and solid basis for the proposed intensive language course on the college level; of course, there is room for a good many additions on our shelf, especially with regard to the more advanced phases of intensive work.

(5) *"What price phonemics?"* The recommendation in the Army directives of starting the intensive study of a language without any writing, or, if at all, with a phonemic transcription, instead of bewildering the neophyte with the secondary and often misleading features of the conventional foreign orthography, has been another bone of contention. In reality, the theory of the A.S.T.P. has been highly flexible with regard to the time when writing was to be introduced, and so was the practice, depending upon the particular exigencies of the language concerned. On the whole, languages with a very complicated orthography or with no standardized spelling and little written or printed material offered less temptation of putting writing first than most of the Western European languages. Yet, even in the teaching of German many found it advisable,

following the natural chronological sequence and the order of importance —first the spoken, then the written word—, to start their teaching without any writing at all and only after this initial period to introduce writing and written material—in conventional German orthography without the intermediary stage of an artificial scientific or semi-scientific transcription.[20]

Likewise, the technique of phonemic analysis and transcription, which still scares or annoys many who have never taken the trouble of finding out what it is, served primarily in the teaching of oriental and "exotic" languages. Indeed, in the case of languages with a traditional writing of forbidding complexity or with no standardized writing at all, it was phonemics that made possible a scientific analysis as well as a practical instruction geared to a functionally essential minimum. "A cynical scholar has said that Americans may possibly learn Japanese before the outbreak of the *next* world war. Memorizing several thousand pictographs is, of course, almost a life's work. But speaking the language is a different story." [21]

For German and other relatively well-spelled languages such techniques could be dispensed with and, in full harmony with the Army directives, actually were dispensed with in the intensive language study of the A.S.T.P.[22] Even the course in *Spoken German*, specially prepared for the U. S. Armed Forces Institute by W. G. and J. K. Moulton,[23] uses no accurate phonemic transcription but, under the name of "Aids to Listening," "a simplified version of the usual German spelling" (p. V), and it does so only in the first 12 units of the book. In fact, students are advised, with the beginning of Part II (units 7–12), to pay more attention to the conventional German spelling—from Part III on (units 13–30) the latter is used exclusively.

If we compare the greatly varying procedure of the A.S.T.P. in these matters with the various practices under the "traditional" system, its transfer to the proposed intensive language course in college would in most cases entail only a minor departure from existing procedures, except that it might tip the scales in favor of an introductory period, of varying length, without any writing or written material in the conventional spelling. Perhaps the favorite mispronunciation of *Wien/Wein, Lieder/leider, wieder/weiter* would be eradicated if the confusing pictures of the traditional orthography were introduced only *after* the correct pronunciation had taken firm root in the course of the oral-aural practice of the first few weeks. Or is this too optimistic a hope?

(6) *"The return of the native?"* Very similar to the preceding is the case of the untrained "native informant" whose employment for intensive language instruction is recommended in the Army directives. Again, it

was in the teaching of the recondite languages that this particular feature of the program was a necessity and, on the whole, a success. For the teaching of the Western European languages, on the other hand, there seemed to be enough persons available with a general education or a specific training sufficient to warrant their employment as both informants and instructors in one person. Moreover, they could be trusted to conduct their drill sessions in a responsible manner, in accordance with their linguistic resourcefulness and pedagogical skill. Thus the various objections to "the machinery of native informants coupled with trained linguists,"[24] the fear of a mechanization and degrading of a considerable part of language teaching, if at all justified, do hardly concern the actual practice of the A.S.T.P. in teaching Western European languages.

More serious, in connection with the proposed introduction of intensive language study into the college curriculum, is the question whether even an adoption of the modified informant-instructor arrangement as used in the A.S.T.P. teaching of Western European languages might not result in an unfair and, indeed, undesirable discrimination against the American-born language teacher. As far as the teaching of German is concerned, I do not think that the problem is serious. In the first place, there is a large number of American-born teachers of German whose mastery of the language in matters of pronunciation and conversation is such that they might be preferable to many native-born informant-instructors with their possible regional peculiarities of pronunciation and their personal idiosyncrasies of grammar and idiom. Moreover, if some of our graduate students, in spite of an M.A. or a Ph.D. in Germanics, have been rather deficient in the practical command of the language, just such a requirement as set up for intensive language teaching will remedy these shortcomings. Furthermore, opinions are somewhat divided as to the degree of perfection with which we expect the students taking intensive language study to imitate every finesse of German intonation, syntax, and idiom. . . . And finally, the balance will shift still more in favor of the American-born language teacher, if we consider the second half of the proposed course in intensive study, as discussed in the following paragraphs.

(7) *"What about 'Kultur'?"* One more point that is usually brought up in discussions of the A.S.T.P. is the narrow, utilitarian goal of its language training, as required by the emergency and stated in the directives, "Command of the colloquial spoken form of the language,"—an objective incompatible with the cultural standards and ideals of college education. However, the truth of the matter is that, although the practical end of the intensive language study under the A.S.T.P. was never lost sight of, the actual achievements were much more general than was

expected according to the Army directives. For, as the program developed, more and more aspects of language study were included, such as reading (especially of newspapers, magazines, and material dealing with the foreign civilization in general), written reports, summaries of speeches and radio broadcasts, etc.[25] As a matter of fact, the final language proficiency of the majority of the A.S.T.P. trainees comprised almost every phase of language study, except the reading of literary material.[26]

The reading of literary material is, indeed, the one important feature which would have to be added to the intensive language study of the Army, if it were to be transferred to the college curriculum: the second half of the first year of intensive language study on the college level would, in part, be devoted to reading. Thus, a tentative distribution of the proposed 10 hours per week during the first year would be as follows:

TERM I

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Presentation of Grammar | 2 h. (or 3) per week | = | 30 h. (or 45) per term |
| Practice in Conversation | 8 h. (or 7) per week | = | 105 h. (or 120) per term |
| Total | 10 hours per week | = | 150 hours per term |

TERM II

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Presentation of Grammar | 1 h. (or 2) per week | = | 15 h. (or 30) per term |
| Practice in Conversation | 5 h. (or 4) per week | = | 60 h. (or 75) per term |
| Prepared Reading | 3 h. per week | = | 45 h. per term |
| Sight Reading | 1 h. per week | = | 15 h. per term |
| Total | 10 hours per week | = | 150 hours per term |

This, of course, is just one of several possible distributions.

As to the method employed in the three hours of reading per week, only one point may deserve some elaboration: although the students must always be prepared to give a literal translation, the reading need not degenerate into translating the texts from cover to cover. Many a student, after reading off the literal translation of a passage, is found completely bewildered when asked what it is all about. That is why in reading we should constantly change our way of checking the student's understanding of the text—by asking him questions on one passage, having him sum up the gist of another in English or in German, having him read in German what is easy and obvious, and, of course, making him translate the more difficult parts, or as soon as he begins to stumble or to guess. In this way, I believe, a total of about 200 pages of properly selected and carefully graded texts might be covered in the form of "Prepared Reading," while an additional hundred pages or so of easier material could be absorbed by way of "Sight Reading," one hour a week.

According to this plan, the first year of the Intensive Language Course in college would combine the principal aims of all language study, *viz.*, speaking, comprehension, reading, and, to some extent, writing. It would start with and concentrate on the conversational, inductive approach, but not without a thorough presentation of the elements of grammar; the acquisition of a reading knowledge would follow during the second term of the first year. It remains to be seen whether a certain degree of oral-aural mastery is conducive to speed and comprehension in reading a language, as the experience of the A.S.T.P. has made us believe.[27]

For reasons of space, I must refrain from elaborating on plans for a second and third year of intensive language study—at present, we are chiefly concerned with the first. It is hard to foretell whether the intensive language course on the college level will prove to be a failure or a success. To be sure, the experiment of the A.S.T.P. is encouraging and is helpful in the tentative organization of the course. But only if we give it a trial as a part of the college curriculum will we be able to decide whether to keep it out of the college for good or whether to accept it definitely, not in the place of, but along with the traditional language course. The experiment is worth trying—that is all this paper is pleading for.

## NOTES

1. If Mr. Ch. R. Walker's article "Language Learning Goes to War," *School and Society,* April 3, 1943, condensed under the title "Teaching Languages in a Hurry," *The Reader's Digest,* May, 1943, pp. 40–42, should have led the casual reader to such misunderstandings, Mr. Walker is least to be blamed for it. Cf. his statement, *ibid.,* p. 40; "The success of these classes is the result of hard work and keen interest, harnessed to a method which combines science and common sense," and his recent article, "Yale Tomorrow," *Atlantic Monthly,* June, 1944, p. 93: "There is nothing magical or mystical about the method of language teaching used at Yale." See also the rejoinder by Dean H. G. Doyle in *Atlantic Monthly,* August, 1944, and his refreshingly sane and objective statement " 'Learning Languages in a Hurry'—but Not by Miracles," *School and Society,* Dec. 18, 1943, pp. 465–467.

2. Cf. A. D. Klarmann, "The Challenge of the Army," *German Quarterly,* XVII (1944), 70: "Many teachers must have shared the regular experience of the author that students in summer school progress much more rapidly than do students in the regular academic year, at least as far as the elementary language courses are concerned. For in the summer school we approach the fulfillment of our desire for more instructional hours and greater concentration." Cf. also Ch. R. Walker, *l. c.* p. 94.

3. Cf. E. H. Sturtevant, "The Intensive Language Program and the Teaching of Latin," *Classical Weekly,* 37 (1943), 17: "A beginners' class cannot be efficient if it meets only three hours a week. Anything less than five hours is absurd, and nine or ten hours a week for the first term would probably be more than twice as effective than five."

4. Cf. Ch. R. Walker, *l. c.,* p. 94.

5. Cf. E Cross, "Language Study and the Armed Forces," *Mod Lang. Journal,*

XXVIII (1944), 295: "If after the war language is still a social demand and teachers of language have the courage of their convictions they will insist that three hours a week devoted to a foreign language is an utterly ridiculous program, unjust and inadequate for a conscientious teacher and an honest student."

6. *Ibid.*, p. 295: "It is very unlikely, in the post-war college course, with extensive claims from all fields of knowledge, that as much as fifteen hours a week will be allotted to the study of one language. The present Army and Navy program will just not fit into the peace-time college course, at any rate, not the curriculum that we know."

7. At Pennsylvania, e. g., Botany 1 is scheduled for 9 hours, Chemistry 1 for 8, Zoology 1 for 9.

8. E. H. Sturtevant, *l. c.*, p. 16: "During the first weeks the best results can be gained only from an intensive study for many hours a day. There are no statistics available in this matter, and opinions differ, but it seems probable that the optimum number of hours per week in the classroom is not less than *eight*." J. M. Cowan and M. Graves, *Hispania*, XXVII (1943), 65 f.: "Better results are to be obtained by more concentrated use of the students' time (a minimum of *ten* hours per week)."

9. It was evident from these rosters that at Pennsylvania, e. g., a student could with only minor adjustments finish all required work by the end of his sophomore year. He would also have accumulated enough credits to give him more than a fair start toward his major (area or otherwise).

10. Should the offering of intensive courses (or sections) in college prove successful, several sections might be established and scheduled at different hours, thus further reducing the number of possible conflicts in Freshmen and Sophomore rosters.

11. If given 6 credit hours, the Intensive Language Course would occupy about ⅓ of a student's weekly roster (18 credit hours), or, if home preparation is included, a total of 12½ class and home study hours (i.e., about ⅓ of the student's weekly study time (40–45 hours).

12. Cf. *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 14: "But it seems evident that the greatest progress in understanding and speaking was made when grammar was used only to explain and relate the materials of the conversational drill sessions." See also the excellent statement by M. S. LaDu, *Mod. Lang. Journal*, XXVIII (1944), 287 f.

13. Cf. E. H. Sturtevant, *l.c.*, p. 17: "In the early stages of learning, the students should commit to memory a short sentence illustrating each syntactic principle, and this sentence should ordinarily be repeated by teacher and student in the circumstances where we have been accustomed to repeat rules."

14. Cf. "Hearing and Speaking," with some amusing details, in *A.S.T.P. Survey*, pp. 13 ff.

15. *School and Society*, Dec. 18, 1943, p. 466.

16. Cf. E. H. Sturtevant, *l. c.*, p. 17. See also H. G. Doyle, *l. c.*, p. 467. *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 14. A. D. Klarmann, *l. c.*, p. 69.

17. Cf. also *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 11.

18. "In an intensive course at Columbia last summer, students mastered 2000 Persian words and phrases in 9 weeks." Ch. R. Walker, *l. c.*, p. 41.

19. It is well-known that even European universities, which pride themselves in carrying on largely graduate work, no longer disdain the more elementary and practical aspects of language study, as is evident from the appointment of elementary native instructors in the various foreign languages.

20. For the teaching of French, R. A. Hall, Jr., has recently suggested the following procedure(s): "It is best to use either no writing at all or an accurate phonemic transcription at the start, introducing the traditional spelling at a later date when the learner's speech habits are already firmly enough set not to be disturbed by the false picture given in traditional orthography." "Language and Superstition," *French Review*, XVII (1944), 381.

21. Ch. R. Walker, *l. c.*, p. 41.

22. "The point at which introduction of the written material took place varied in different institutions. Many began at once with texts in normal orthography. This was usually the case in Western European languages." *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 18.

23. Now published for civilian use, H. Holt, 1944.

24. M. A. Pei, "The Function of Languages in the Post-War World," *Mod. Lang. Journal*, XXVIII (1944), 282.

25. Cf. *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 17: "While the main purpose of the A.S.T.P. was to teach trainees to speak and to understand the foreign language they studied, they learned to *read* as well."

26. For details, cf. *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 17 ff. On a voluntary basis a great deal of literary reading was done in the A.S.T.P.

27. See *A.S.T.P. Survey*, p. 18: "In the opinion of the teachers, the emphasis on speaking the language did not hinder but rather helped the reading. The ease and speed with which the trainees learned to read, and the amount they read in the A.S.T.P., abundantly confirms this opinion." Cf. also E. H. Sturtevant, *l. c.*, p. 15; Ch. R. Walker, *l. c.*, p. 94; R. A. Hall, Jr., *l. c.*, p. 381.

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# INTENSIVE GERMAN AT YALE

GEORGE NORDMEYER AND JAMES F. WHITE

[From *GQ*, XIX, 1, Jan. 1946, 86–94.]

In February, 1944, a group of linguistic teachers at Yale proposed that Yale adopt in its elementary courses in living foreign languages methods similar to those then in use in the Army Area and A.S.T.P. programs. After considerable debate, the Yale Faculties in June authorized intensive courses of this sort for all beginners as an experiment for one year. A continuation for another year was granted in 1945, so that intensive courses of ten hours a week in French, German, Russian, and Spanish have now been in operation for over a year. The results of these courses have been examined by an impartial committee of eminent scholars from outside, invited by the University to attend the courses, administer tests, and in other ways measure their achievement. In German, where a new intensive course has been started each term of the accelerated war-time calendar, we have by now (October, 1945) had the experience of seven terms, or three and a half full two-term courses.

After the summer term, 1944, beginners were no longer all forced to take the intensive course, but were allowed to take either it or a traditional five-hour course, so that we are now in a position to compare the advantages and disadvantages of the two types of instruction. In the seven terms of the intensive course we have now had 31 divisions each of ten students or fewer, and approximately 100 students have completed the two-term course, with 20 more at present at the half-way point.

In introducing intensive courses, the Yale Faculty refrained from any endorsement of the "Army method," but merely established the basis for an experiment. Nor was any change in the ultimate aim of language instruction considered, although it was assumed that the new courses would emphasize first and foremost an oral command of the languages. Satisfactory completion of the two terms of an intensive course was to fulfill the student's modern language requirement, which would ordinarily have required from three to six terms of five- or three-hour courses. This policy may very likely be modified soon to the extent that only high grades in the intensive course fufill the requirement, those with lower grades being obliged to take a further term of an advanced traditional course. It was expected that students, having completed the intensive course, would continue in advanced courses, primarily in literature, on an equal footing with those who had fulfilled the language requirement in the ordinary way. The aim of the modern language requirement, and, by implication, of both sets of courses remained the same; namely, the purpose expressed in the Yale requirement: "to provide for a facility for interpretative reading in a foreign language."

Inasmuch as the objective of the Army language instruction, whose methods the intensive courses were to follow, had been to impart "a command of the colloquial *spoken* form of the language," it seemed that some compromise between the two objectives would have to be found. If the experiment contemplated was to be significant, it would have to answer the question: can we perhaps better or more quickly provide the desired facility for interpretative reading by *first* aiming at oral fluency and comprehension of the spoken language? It seems to have been generally assumed that this would be done by devoting the first term to speaking and the second to reading, though subsequently such a sharp division proved impracticable. By general consent, at any rate, the first term was to apply methods of instruction similar to those used by the Army.

Though the language departments were given the same authorization and student time, divergences both in methodology and in allotment of time among the language departments were marked. A committee to supervise the intensive courses provided a medium for the mutual interchange of ideas and procedures which benefited and influenced all the courses; but each department had a free hand, and differences are still apparent. In the German course, the plan from the beginning was to try to apply the features of the Army program as purely and completely as possible, in order to make the experiment a true test. Later, modification toward the reading objective could be undertaken in a gradual transition, retaining if possible the effective features of both types of work.

The first, and probably hardest thing to determine was to find out what was meant by the "methods of the Army language programs." Linguists associated with these programs unanimously and emphatically deprecate references to the Army instruction as in any way a "new method." And yet, in contrast to traditional beginners' courses, some innovations are apparent. In the intensive German course we have endeavored to try out as thoroughly, purely, and open-mindedly as possible any features, whether from the Army program or any other source, which came to our attention, seemed likely to prove useful, and did not vitiate any essential purpose of the course.

From the Army program, as outlined in the recommendations of the American Council of Learned Societies, we have tried to preserve these main features in our course: (1) Imparting a command of the colloquial *spoken* language with all this implies in the way of fluency, accuracy, and approximation of native sounds as a primary objective (modified, in this case, only insofar as some facility in reading is also aimed at, though at a later time, and never so as to impair the first objective). (2) The intensive character of the course in respect to language practice, as far as possible in the ten hours a week allotted to it. (3) Strict separation of lectures, generally in English, on the structure (pronunciation, grammar, syntax, word formation, etc.) of German from oral practice in conversation with native speakers where only German is used, the allotment of time being in the ratio of two hours of *analysis* to eight hours of *practice*. (4) Employment of a phonemic transcription for a considerable time before materials written in normal orthography are introduced. (5) Insistence on small, carefully supervised *practice sessions* conducted by native speakers, in groups of seldom more than eight, and never more than ten students.

Besides the above basic principles of Army instruction, our intensive course has been influenced in details in varying degrees by general results in linguistics and their practical application, by other courses designed for "Army" instruction, and by previous experience by the instructors in different types of language teaching. Not only were the developments of the Yale linguistic group (as for instance Bloomfield's *Outline Guide for the Study of Foreign Languages*) readily available and of great assistance, but frequent and profitable consultations were held with instructors who taught exotic languages in the Army programs. Helpful suggestions came from attempts at application like Jespersen, *How to Teach a Foreign Language,* Palmer's *Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages,* and, in the practical field, from War Department Education Manual RM518, *Spoken German,* by W. G. and J. K. Moulton. The instructors had had experience with traditional courses, *Area and Language* courses, and *Berlitz* teaching. There was no dogmatic insistence on any one "method"; rather, anything that seemed to accomplish the desired end was adopted, and procedures which failed to further the aim of teaching the language were summarily discarded after trial.

Text materials for the course were prepared by the instructors during the first three terms and have been used since then with minor modifications. Each *unit* of the material was intended to provide for a ten-hour week of practice, analysis, and homework. First, between twelve and thirty *basic sentences* of colloquial German are given in a transcription with a translation in English. Each sentence is preceded by a so-called *breakdown,* i.e., new words are given separately with a literal translation often differing from that in the complete sentence. These sentences, which are to be learned literally by heart, are followed by an explanation of the grammar and syntax of the sentences, formulated as succinctly as possible. "Rules," as such, are avoided, the aim being rather to illustrate—by paradigms and brief statements of what *happens*—how the forms learned in the sentences may be expected to behave in different surroundings. Students are expected to study this section in order to be able to use the forms in substitution sentences; but in general, nothing is discussed which has not already occurred in *basic sentences.*

These two sections, the sentences and the grammatical explanation, make up the esssential basis for the work and could, alone, provide material for a more rapid, less thorough 'speaking acquaintance' with German. In order to make active as many of the forms as possible, and to increase the student's stock of truly colloquial sentences, three further sections are added. Variations of previous material are first presented again in the form of a *conversation* between people speaking as they might in real life. Students are expected to learn these sentences so that they can produce them when appropriately cued. A fourth section presents situations outlined in English so phrased that word-for-word translation is practically impossible. The fifth section, the *supplementary sentences,* requires the student to form a large number of substitution sentences on the model of the grammar tables and previous sentences.

In later *units* the *conversation section* is replaced by short anecdotes containing perhaps twenty new words, and accompanied by about forty questions to be answered orally and rapidly. In this way a gradual transition to the reading of the latter part of the course is initiated. Rapid reading outside the classroom is also begun at this point. By the time about twenty *units* covering the essentials of German grammar and syntax have been mastered, reading texts take their place as the material for the *practice sessions*. The question-and-answer technique is retained, and sentences reproducing the essentials of the stories read are elicited orally, rapidly, and repeatedly. In the end, the student will have learned to reproduce hundreds of colloquial German sentences as uttered by native speakers. Though the first part of the course constitutes intensive training in but a limited range of vocabulary—the *units* use about 1,200 words—the reading toward the end enlarges the active vocabulary to a rather surprising degree. For practical purposes, *passive* vocabulary does not count; even in connection with reading, the objective is to make everything active.

The material of the *units* is preceded by a rather detailed introduction to the sounds of German, including a description of the consonant and vowel phonemes and discussions of stress, intonation, juncture, and modifications. When conventional spelling is introduced (at present after about eight weeks), the students receive a chapter on spelling and punctuation. After a fair interval of time they are expected to be able to write the sentences they have learned, spelling with reasonable accuracy, and going by the *basic sentences*, which are now distributed in conventional spelling along with those in transcription during the remaining *units*. The material is indexed in a long word list in English for every word that has appeared, referring the student to the sentences where the word was used in context, instead of translating it. Finally, extensive *notes* glossing *all* new words which occur in the reading texts are given to the students. This was done so that students might be saved the drudgery of looking up words and, instead, spend the time saved in learning to talk about what they were reading.

In covering a *unit* of the material, the familiar mimicry-memory technique is employed. Students are expected to learn the *basic sentences* by heart, exactly, by imitating the utterances of a native speaker. The *speaker* says each new word of the sentence, and the students repeat in unison and individually. Then comes the whole sentence with natural intonation and speed. This is done again and again until each student has said the whole material in an acceptable way, has heard each sentence spoken dozens of times by a native speaker, and has uttered it several times himself. Then the *speaker* elicits the sentences or easy variations by asking questions. Soon, after constant repetition, the material will have been memorized, and the student will be able to come forth with nearly automatic responses in whole sentences. The *conversation* is done similarly, with the students repeating, taking parts, and answering questions. Formerly, the fourth section, the situation to be handled with variations of sentences, was also acted out in the *practice sessions*, but is now used in the *analysis* as a check on achievement. Instead, the time is spent on substitution sentences either from the *supplementary sentences* or in situations presented spontaneously by the native speakers.

In the two hours a week of *analysis*, conducted by the instructors, explanations are given, weekly tests are conducted, and some drill in grammmatical substitution takes place. Students are urged to bring up their questions at these meetings rather than asking the *speakers* during *practice sessions*. Having the native speaker present in the *analysis* and eliciting all forms under discussion from him, a procedure found valuable in courses in exotic languages, was abandoned, since, in the opinion of the students, it consumed too much time.

Though certain changes have subsequently been made in the course as outlined above (notably the grammatical drill by means of supplementary substitution sentences), it was essentially this program which, along with the other intensive language courses, was examined in February, 1945, by a committee made up of Professors Robert Herndon Fife, of Columbia, Stephen A. Freeman, of Middlebury, and Dean Henry Grattan Doyle of George Washington University. The committee attended the courses for a week, conferred with the faculty, received letters from students, and administered objective tests on reading, grammar, and vocabulary to those taking intensive courses. In their report they found that the German program achieved its best results in oral and aural competence, but fell somewhat short in comprehension of sight reading, in vocabulary, and in grammar. The basis for comparison was an objective test administered in 1937 to college students who had been taught in traditional courses. In fact, students from the intensive course barely attained the level reached by the 1937 students in grammar, sight reading, and vocabulary at the end of two semesters of college German. Evidently the achievement of the intensive course in oral fluency and aural comprehension had been purchased at some cost to other objectives. In the time available, the intensive course failed to develop much ability in the reading, grammar or vocabulary of literary German, objectives which, admittedly, could be attained to a high degree by traditional methods.

Nevertheless the test was in one way inconclusive. The intensive course had concentrated on colloquial materials, and its students had been tested on the literary language. The strong points of one type of course were being compared with the weak points of another. The question remained unanswered whether or not the intensively trained students might eventually catch up with or surpass the others in advanced courses, without losing the advantages of oral expression and immediate comprehension of the spoken language. It might also be pointed out that the intensive course had been in operation under the shortened terms of war-time acceleration, whereas the courses to which it was compared in the tests had more teaching time, and much more calendar time, at their disposal.

Possibly the conviction that the intensive courses should not stand or fall on the basis of measurements as described above, led the examining committee to recommend that these courses be continued. On the intensive courses they had this to say in their report: "There is no question that the intensive method has succeeded in creating in the minds of the students . . . an understanding that language is a living, functioning organism and not a dead body of knowledge and that its essential form is the spoken language, for which writing is, at best, an unsatisfactory and often misleading substitute. We believe that a full understanding of this is an important step for every student in his future relation to his fellowmen. We do not need to recall the significance of the cultivation of the spoken language for a liberal education which has been recognized since the Renaissance as a defence against both scholasticism and barbarism. . . . The plan and methods for the intensive courses . . . have shown themselves convincing and stimulating to students who begin a foreign language. Under . . . these methods the language is really alive, a vital means of self-expression and communication, creating its own grammar, not the creature or result of rules but the source for them." This is no less praise of the intensive courses than it is an indictment of certain traditional procedures. Thus, the Yale experiment, in trying to answer the question about the efficacy of intensive courses, may well have raised a new question: Is not a re-definition of the objectives of modern language teaching perhaps warranted and desirable at this time?

To judge by the findings of the investigating committee on student interest, this is actually the case: "Our observation in the classrooms and letters received from the undergraduates leave no doubt in our minds that the students as a group were more interested in this work and more enthusiastic about the results than was the case in any former experience of ours with groups of beginners in a college course. . . . It must also be conceded that the method rests on sound pedagogical doctrine so far as it is based on the active and constant participation of every student in the class work. Learning was active, not passive; the procedure was, in general, a good demonstration of the laboratory type of teaching. Finally, the program was of a kind to give the student a sensation of continuous growth and increasing mastery, thus enabling him to escape the discouraging plateau which is frequently encountered in the second year of foreign language study." Thus, while certain achievements were not realized by the intensive course, other accomplishments were clearly visible, and the crucial question in the discussion of intensive versus traditional teaching is this: are the objectives that can be attained by intensive courses (i.e., primarily oral-aural facility in language) more worthwhile than the immediate aims of more traditional procedure?

Our experience with students who completed the intensive course in German seems to supply a partial answer here. While it was true that students in the intensive course did not attain, in some skills, the level of achievement of those for whom the tests were designed, it is equally true that the superior student subsequently adapted himself very readily to the demands of courses normally open to advanced students only. In fact, the examining committee itself surmised this, when they said in their report that, "after a short period of adaptation, a superior student should succeed in literary and other advanced courses: his ability to understand the instructor's interpretation and explanations in the foreign language would, indeed, give him a considerable advantage over students with less oral training." It was also found at Yale that students with less than superior verbal ability, but good general prognosis, did not reach a level of achievement to justify making intensive training the sole course in their foreign language studies. We have come to the conclusion that the intensive method offers definite and worthwhile advantages to many types of students, but we especially encourage students to take the intensive course who have made a strong showing in the verbal section of the Scholastic Aptitude Test taken by all those entering. We also accept, as an indication of likely success in the intensive course, a good record in previous language study or any strong motivation, professional or personal, for learning the spoken language. But it is not felt that the intensive course should be the sole medium of language instruction in the present-day curriculum, and Yale continues to offer traditional courses in elementary language instruction side by side with intensive classes.

There can be no doubt that the introduction of the intensive method has had a considerable influence on traditional classes. We have become equally aware that, at present, traditional courses also impart skills still worthwhile. We believe that offering traditional and intensive courses side by side is the surest guarantee that each student who comes to us for whatever reason is given a full opportunity to develop himself according to his abilities and desires.

# POSTWAR SIGNIFICANCE OF THE WARTIME AREA AND LANGUAGE COURSES

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[From *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XXXI. 3, Autumn 1945, 441–447.]

. . . The significance of these training programs for postwar education seems to be fourfold. They have taught us a lot about how to teach; they are likely to have a substantial effect on the content of the standard undergraduate curriculum; they give us a pattern for training Americans who look forward to careers in foreign places; and they supply a model for an important part of the instruction which we must give to students from all parts of the globe who will flock to America after the war.

1. *Lessons in How to Teach.* Certainly the most sensational and probably the most significant demonstration in effective teaching which the area and language course supplied was the use of intensive methods in language instruction. The officers and enlisted men in these courses had a common purpose in studying the language—they wanted to learn to talk it. The motivation was strong—they expected to go abroad right away and they knew that command of the language was most important to their comfort if not their safety. These conditions were strong guarantors of the success of any sensible teaching and study method which might have been used. But the instruction in many of the schools achieved results far beyond the expectation of any except the most vigorous proponents of intensive methods.

A committee acting for the Modern Language Association of America made a study of teaching in the C.A.T.S and A.S.T.P. schools and reported that the results were "definitely good" but "not miraculous." This is entirely true. A "miraculous" thing is something that men cannot explain; it comes to be without the help of human beings. Graves, Cowan, and all the teachers who sweat blood to get these boys to speak and understand a foreign language in a few months know exactly how the results were achieved and they certainly had a hand in bringing them about. The phrase "definitely good" may be adequate for the mine run of the schools in the Army training; it is much too conservative a label for the results achieved in those schools that adhered most closely to the pattern of instruction and study outlined by Graves and Cowan. Experienced teachers of French, German, and Italian reported the surprise of their professional lives at the fluency and even nicety of expression achieved by many of these students in uniform. And the way hundreds of them learned to handle outlandish languages bearing little resemblance to the English to which they were born (Burmese, Thai, Japanese, for instance), and learned it from teachers and drill leaders who, in many cases, had never before attempted to teach the language—this was amazing even to students, teachers, and observers who had once learned a language in its native habitat under the intensive guidance of a personal tutor.

The extent to which these methods can be applied to language instruction in the traditional college course is right now the subject of hot debate all over the country. The reasons for studying a language in peacetime are various—to be able to talk it, to read the literature with appreciation, to learn the words and phrases that have been incorporated into scientific and technical terminology. The multiplication of objectives and motives complicates the difficulties in teaching. Methods of teaching and study which enable the student to talk in a short time may not be so good if his objective is to learn how to read and write the language. It costs more money to teach a course intensively with a lot of drill in small groups than it does to drag the student through a semester of occasional recitations and a lot of individual study; on the other hand, if language study is tied up with other subjects in which the language is constantly used, it may turn out that learning the language takes care of itself after the essentials have been mastered. We will know about these things before very long, for many institutions promise a variety of experiments.

The influence of the wartime courses on methods of instruction will undoubtedly extend far beyond language instruction. In the Navy School, in each of the C.A.T.S., and in many of the A.S.T.P. schools, a director of instruction was appointed and given sufficient authority to enable him to correlate all parts of the instruction and mold the entire teaching program into a compact and integrated course. This caused many a faculty man for the first time to consider seriously the relation of his teaching to that of his associates and to weigh the value of his contribution to the achievement of educational objectives. Under the critical eye and tongue of officers who felt their own merits and prestige equal to those of the faculty, not a few professors got told what was the net value of their lectures, and some of them suddenly acquired an open mind toward alternative ways of putting over facts and opinions. Panels, often including members of the student body, came in for frequent use. Conferences at which a small group of students could ask questions and venture opinions were prescribed as an important part of the curriculum in the C.A.T.S. Several of the schools made occasional or even frequent use of the informant; a refugee, a returned missionary, or a businessman who had surveyed an industry was put on the stand and a faculty member undertook to negotiate the transfer of his knowledge to the student group. Many a faculty man for the first time set out to find movies or prepare an exhibit which would show the student what he found himself unable to put over in words. Some of the schools even took the student out into the metropolitan community to meet the nationality groups which he would later encounter, hoping in this way to give him his clearest picture of the people and culture he expected to live and work with later on.

In the C.A.T.S. and in the Navy school it became clear at an early date that the officers would not credit the training with military importance unless the instruction was tied up closely with their future civil affairs work. Civil affairs teams (simulating a field headquarters staff) or other working groups were accordingly organized and assigned problems which the student-officers recognized as practical but which could only be solved by application of the knowledge which they were supposed to learn about the area. These devices not only won the officers over to the training; they gave the faculty a clear understanding of what the officer most needed to get from them.

Faculty people, in these ways, were introduced to a lot of methodology that was little tried, if not entirely new to them. Some of them claim to have learned a lot about making their teaching effective; whether on the whole their future teaching will show profit from this experience remains to be seen. And whether the fruits of their experience will penetrate to any large part of the faculty is problematical indeed.

2. *Better Ideas on What to Teach.* But wartime experience in area and language courses may contribute much more than methodology to college teaching. Forced to review and organize the important things that he knew about a foreign place and a foreign culture, many a faculty man came to realize that he had very little systematic knowledge about his own country. One cannot convey to officers and enlisted men the things they need to know about a foreign place and its inhabitants without arriving at some sense of what is important and significant in the life of a people. Most teachers who went through this process in the Army and Navy courses feel that they acquired a clearer vision of what is important and significant in our own environment and way of living, and they expect their teaching to profit from it for years to come.

Academic circles are continuously disturbed by the feeling that students ought to be introduced to an alien civilization, but they are everlastingly in despair of finding a way to do it. The University of Wisconsin, under Alexander Meiklejohn's leadership, attempted to guide the student through an exploration of a classic civilization, then through the systematic study of his own. St. John's College attempts to conduct him over the whole course of Western civilization, from ancient to contemporary times, by study of the principal cultural landmarks. No small number of academicians argue that the student ought to have at least a good look at an important contemporary culture differing in significant respects from our own—India and Indonesian civilization, China and the Chinese, The Moslem World. Such a study, they believe, would help him better to appreciate the qualities and values of his own ways of living. The area and language courses renewed interest in these ideas, won adherents to them, and clarified minds as to how the objective might be achieved.

One of our perennial problems in undergraduate teaching is to find a way of integrating in the mind of the student the different things that he studies in the course of his college career. We have tried orientation courses, senior seminars, and a dozen other devices, all designed to show the inter-relation of the different categories of learning. None of them satisfies very many of us very well. The area course may prove to be the ideal device for accomplishing this purpose. Imagine a group of seniors topping off their four years with a full semester devoted to the study of the region in which they are located—New England for one group of colleges; the Middle West for others; the South, the Mountain States, the West Coast for their respective institutions. All of the social sciences and most of the other studies will be brought into use. Who owns the land and the industries? What does the region produce? How is it organized to produce and distribute? What men or groups have power and to whom do they answer? Who supplies the civic leadership? What problems trouble those who look just a little way ahead of the rest? What other undertaking would more surely bring out what the student has learned, force a greater reliance on his tools for learning, or send him out into the world with a sharper realization of what the struggle is about?

3. *Training Americans for Careers Abroad.* Up to now, very little of American education has been specifically designed for the export trade. We have assumed that the student would make his living in the United States, and most of them have done so. Now we face the likelihood that many of our college graduates will launch their professional careers in foreign places—as engineers, as industrial specialists, in commercial establishments, in foreign service of the government, and in other capacities.

The war and the prospect of a world in much closer communication have set educators to planning curricula designed for an international service. These students must have first-class professional training. We hope they will acquire the necessary grace and lore for a gentleman's conversation. Will it not be wise also to give them, as we gave the prospective civil affairs officer, advance knowledge about the places and the people they expect to visit? Many college officials and teachers think so, and in planning instruction they are drawing heavily on wartime experience, particularly on the original A.S.T.P. curriculum which Colonel Miller presented to the War Department.

American industrial and commercial enterprises may call for training cut to order after the war, as the Army and Navy did while the war was on. In fact, more than one firm has already asked some college or university to outline a training program for its personnel in foreign posts. These courses may run for a few weeks or a few months. They may or may not include the study of a foreign language. Whatever kind of training the contract calls for, it may now be set down as certain that its basic character was presaged in the wartime area and language courses.

4. *Training of Foreign Students in America.* It is estimated that between 6,500 and 7,000 students came from foreign countries to study in American colleges and universities during the year 1943–1944. The number of foreign students has been steadily increasing over a period of years. It is inevitable that the number will sharply increase after the close of this war. The prestige of American military and productive power alone will draw them like a magnet. In addition, we are likely to pursue a positive policy designed to bring them into our schools. Indeed there are several hundred technically trained citizens of our allies in the United States right now, studying American technological and production methods under arrangements sponsored by the American Government.

After a Chinese uprising against Westerners in 1900, we wrote off a major part of the indemnity to the United States by an arrangement whereby the Chinese Government paid the cost of educating a large number of Chinese students in the United States. This Boxer fund supplies an inviting pattern for the discharge of a good part of the lend-lease obligations to the United States. Neither China, nor Holland nor France (and for that matter, maybe no other recipient) can be expected to pay off in cash or goods the full amount of the advances we have made to them. Why not seek to offset some of those obligations by inviting the other nations concerned to educate a number of their young people in the United States?

Whether he comes on subsidy or not, the foreign student must learn to speak and to read the English language. He will want to learn something about our terrifying way of producing and distributing goods. He will also want to learn about our democratic system. The wartime foreign area and language course furnishes almost an ideal model for the first months of instruction for such students: The study of English by intensive methods; a thorough indoctrination in the ideology which causes us to value the interests of the common man and respect his judgment; a careful inquiry into the institutions and ways by which we seek to hold accountable those who have political power; a systematic examination of capitalism as it is practiced in America. Are these not the things we wish the students from abroad to learn about America? These are things that we now know how to teach as a result of the wartime foreign area and language course.

# THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES: COMMENTS ON THE A.S.T.P.

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[From *SS*, Vol. 65, No. 1674, Jan. 25, 1947, 66–71.]

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Until five years ago the general public exhibited no interest in the squabblings of the language professors. Unless he was a curriculum specialist, the average educator held himself aloof. But when the newspapers, the *Reader's Digest* and other mass media of information began to headline the "new" scientific methods of language teaching used in the Army Specialized Training Program and other war instruction projects, linguistic methodology was added to the repertoire of parlor debates on an equal footing with military strategy and with divination of D-Day. Almost everybody was convinced that foreign languages could be acquired in no time and with little pain, and that the schools had again bungled their job.

The professional press was in its glory. Articles, editorials, letters to the editors, and reports of all types vied for space. Everybody was either for or against the "newly discovered" methods: most anthropologists, philologists, and ethnologists whooped it up for the intensive training system, informally referred to as the linguist-informant or "mim-mem" method; while professional language teachers were inclined to accept it with reservations or to criticize it as sensational, not new, and not especially suited for teaching civilized languages. Without exaggeration, the published thinking on the subject of wartime language instruction reached into hundreds of contributions.[1]

By way of brief review, the intensive language-training course of the A.S.T.P. was a nine-month sequence of instruction aiming to develop conversational fluency for use with the foreign man-in-the-street. The soldier-student was also supplied with a rich background of information and understanding on the civilization, psychology, and customs of the people whose language he was studying. Grammar, reading, and other phases of the orthodox linguistic program were subordinated to the over-all aim. Contributing to the success of this concentrated course, which in terms of clock-hours approximated a six-year schedule, were such factors as high-tension motivation, careful selection of students, increased time for instruction, the use of phonographs and other aids, and small classes. Many observers maintain that the students were able to read very well, notwithstanding the lack of special attention to the acquisition of reading facility.

To the American Council of Learned Societies, sponsor and organizer of intensive linguistic training in the unfamiliar languages, the results were a little less than phenomenal. Mortimer Graves and J. M. Cowan, secretary of the Council's Committee on Intensive Language Instruction and director of the Intensive Language Program, respectively, in their "Report of the First Year's Operation of the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies," describe the language learning system as

> epoch-making,—not only when measured by the considerable number of new courses introduced, but perhaps even more when judged in terms of increased experiment with and advertizing of intensive methods, improvement of implementation, and scientific study of linguistic phenomena, much of this last not only for the first time in America but for the first time anywhere in the world (p. 30).

Success with the teaching of area or regional studies impels the authors of the report to recommend that "instead of developing a centre for the study of *Turkish,* we should develop a centre for the study of *Turkey*" (p. 32). Although they make no particular claim for the novelty of their idea, they seem to be unaware that similar suggestions have been constantly made [2] and that in some institutions "area" programs had been in operation without benefit of special designation.

The basic report on wartime language teaching is "A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program," prepared by Henry Grattan Doyle and associates for the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America. Starting with the A.S.T.P. program *ab initio,* in April, 1943, the survey tells how language classes were set up for 15,000 students in 55 colleges and universities. Members of the survey reporting group visited over 400 classes in 17 languages taught at 44 institutions and concluded that "for a very considerable number of trainees the results, while by no means miraculous, were definitely good, very satisfactory to the men in charge of the program, and very generally gratifying to the trainees themselves" (p. 25). Over and above the mastery of the native idiom, the student carried away a respectable reading knowledge, noted the observers. On the basis of their accumulated observations, they recommended the adoption of intensive methods for elementary classes in foreign languages. What these learned linguists apparently failed to appreciate were the administrative and curricular difficulties involved in organizing courses taking up 15 hours of the student's time each week.

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Experience as an instructor in an Army blitz course in German and as a co-worker overseas of graduates of that course has convinced the present writer that initial conversational facility is lost much more rapidly than acquired. The omnipresent native interpreter made it unnecessary for the Army language trainees to talk German. Before long the latter's fluency dwindled to a level little higher than that possessed by the average soldier: "Geben Sie mir Schnaps!" (pronounced "snaps"); "Kommen Sie mit, Fräulein!" ("frowline"); "Alles (Alice) kaputt!" etc. Without steady practice, the most efficiently acquired conversational ability is of little value.

Why, then, this great hullabaloo about talking a foreign language? The foreign-language teacher must take more time to rethink the entire question of aims. There is no way of assuring the student's retention of the speaking and reading skills, save that of self-effort by the student for a long time after graduation. To hazard a guess, most students will not pay attention to foreign languages after they have successfully overcome the examination hurdles. It might be a good idea, therefore, to consider again President Nicholas Murray Butler's suggestion in 1918: "The chief purpose in studying French should be to gain an understanding and appreciation of France." It might perhaps be an even better idea for every subject specialist and for all curriculum constructors to apply the criteria of permanence of learning and post-scholastic retention to all subjects they wish taught in school.

Several centuries ago, Wilhelm Schickard, professor at the University of Tübingen, wrote "The Hebrew Sun-dial," a text which would enable

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students to apprehend sufficiently the elements of Hebrew "in the space of twenty-four hours." De Witt Clinton called Joseph Lancaster "the benefactor of the human race" because his teaching system, "a blessing sent down from heaven," made it possible for reading to be taught in two months or even in three weeks. In the December 28, 1946, issue of *School and Society*, Robert R. Martin of Hamline University points out with pride that the military services accelerated the learning process with efficiency and offers "the Japanese language in a period of three months as an example" (p. 451). It is high time for educators to rise in articulate protest.

## NOTES

1. A selective bibliography of 255 items covering 1943–45 has been compiled by Winthrop H. Rice and Helen Bogdon, *Review of Educational Research*, XVI, 2, April, 1946, pp. 139–160. The May, 1945, issue of *Modern Language Journal* contains a list of 200 titles.

2. Note, for example, the recommendation of President Butler toward the close of the first world war: "Instead of a Department of Romance Languages and Literatures . . . there should be . . . a Department of Latin Peoples, in which might be assembled not only those teachers who give instruction in the history, the government, the art, and the architecture of those peoples that are of direct Latin descent," "Annual Report of the President of Columbia University," Columbia University, 1918, p. 27. For this lead the writer is endebted to Dr. Kandel.

## ON LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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[From *MLJ*, XXIX, 3, March, 1945, 198–209.]

The difficulty of imparting an adequate knowledge of a foreign language to a group of individuals meeting a few hours a week for a few years is so great, and the undertaking so seldom entirely successful that ever since organized language study has existed, teachers, linguistic scientists, and psychologists throughout the civilized world have been looking for a method that would bring learners as close as possible to the desired objective. In Europe, and in South America, because of the satisfactory length of the course and other favorable conditions, the pedagogical aspect of language study no longer agitates the teachers, except when Linguists or Psychology throw some new light on the subject. In this country, on the contrary, because of the shortness of the course and some other drawbacks, discussions of methods have been gaining in intensity for the past several decades and lately have culminated in an uproarious and disconcerting confusion. This in spite of a very comprehensive investigation on a national scale carried out a few years ago. The debated issues may be clarified by a restatement of fundamentals and re-emphasis of some easily perceivable truths.

### WHAT IS MEANT BY "LEARNING" A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?

When people speak of learning a foreign language they usually mean acquiring the ability to use that foreign language in ways comparable to those in which it is used by natives. It is curious to observe how few people, even educated people, even teachers of language, find it necessary to examine this notion critically—an examination that would soon reveal to them that this goal is not within easy reach, that, on the contrary, it is at the end of a long, if attractive, road.

To what is this attitude due? Probably to the fact that people do not, generally, distinguish between a smattering of a foreign tongue and a real knowledge of it. Generally, a smattering is considered quite sufficient. This has been strikingly brought out in public reports on and discussions of the linguistic results achieved by men in the Army's Specialized Training Program. People who know that many of our fourteen year olds with nine years of training behind them are unable to grasp the complete meaning of a very simple English text, or that many high school graduates are unable to write or speak English correctly, affirmed with conviction that "officers *learned* French-Arabic (sic) in twelve hours," that, in six weeks, soldiers learned to make speeches in the foreign tongue, etc. There is a multitude of such success stories, the palm being carried off by the U. of X. where army men who studied the foreign language intensively for less than two months . . . are now able to discuss agricultural reforms with their foreign hosts or, better still, "are now sitting as judges in Allied countries trying civil cases." For completeness, it must be added that these truly miraculous achievements were not confined to speaking. The students, before they realized what was happening, also learned to read.

These assertions of the ease with which foreign languages can be learned come from people more or less directly concerned with teaching them. As for the general public, it is almost unbelievable how many credulous souls there are who believe that the "learning" of a foreign language is a "cinch," that anybody can "pick it up" in his leisure time. Thousands swallow wholesale such obviously misleading advertisements as "Spanish in ten lessons," "Russian without a teacher," etc., without stopping to ask: "What kind or how much Spanish or Russian?" No wonder that a ridiculously unwarranted proficiency is often expected of our boys and girls after a short period of instruction.

The facts are these: No language can be easily or quickly mastered, whatever the method and whoever the master. A language is something infinitely subtle and difficult. In the language of any civilized people there are many thousands of words and idiomatic constructions. Most of these have many meanings and shades, the exact understanding of which is crucial. A British linguist once said: "One is almost afraid to think how the course of world history, and the glories and sufferings of mankind, may have been twisted and turned on many fateful occasions by the missing nuance of meaning." It is easy enough to teach students to read some nonconsequential material, to talk about the weather, to ask for a drink or for a meal, or to ask the time. But to read with complete understanding a book or a serious article written in a foreign language, or to carry on a conversation with an educated foreigner is by no means easy. For the former, the reader must have become familiar with at least five or six thousand words and with as many hundreds of idiomatic constructions; for the latter, the speaker must be able to use at least two or three thousand words in grammatically and phonetically correct sentences and to understand many more—quite evidently not a program to be mastered in a few weeks or even a few months. As for the complete mastery of a foreign language, it must remain an ideal for the great majority of learners: it is achieved by very few and is, quite frankly, hardly ever the result of classroom instruction. Of course, we have all heard of the person who "speaks like a native" three, four or even half a dozen languages, but this person is a myth or perhaps a hotel interpreter who often does not know more than a few dozen words of each.

It is beyond comprehension why so few people realize that the acquisition of a foreign language cannot be easier than the acquisition of one's own native tongue! It is infinitely harder; for to learn a new language means to acquire a new set of speech habits, different word-thought associations, new and profound mental adjustments *in the face of the powerful opposition of those already acquired.* Witness the frequently painful speech of foreigners, educated foreigners, who have been living here for decades!

Let's go back to the question posed in the beginning of this section and attempt an answer: What is meant by learning a foreign language? Learning a language, like the learning of any other art, or science, has a beginning, but no end. While the quality of achievement and the rate of progress are determined by the manner of instruction and by the personal characteristics of the students, the extent of mastery is always in direct proportion to the amount of time and effort expended. If accuracy and scope are no consideration, it is perfectly possible, even easy, to read or to speak the foreign language at the end of six weeks, but if accuracy matters and scope is to be on the level of the experience of an educated adult, then six years of formal instruction would not be too many. As a matter of fact, six years is the minimum in nearly all other civilized countries.[1]

## IN THE WAKE OF THE ARMY SPECIALIZED TRAINING PROGRAM

It is a great exaggeration to say that teachers of language generally did not know the approach to language recommended by the Army. Since the objectives were limited to oral comprehension and expression, with accuracy subordinated to fluency, every intelligent teacher must have known that a maximum of practice in hearing and speaking based on appropriate texts, and a minimum of functional grammar was required. The Army gave us no *new* method, and nothing *new* has developed in the matter of easier or speedier mastery of a language in all its aspects.

However, while the A.S.T.P. experience contributed nothing to the theory of language learning, it will have exercised a deep and lasting influence on the teaching of languages in the schools of this country. This will take place because of the effect it will have upon our numerous teachers who needed to be awakened to the need of revising their methods, and especially upon the attitude toward language instruction on the part of administrators, educational leaders, and the general public. This attitude has been affected both favorably and adversely: *favorably*, because the great and urgent need of the A.S.T. program made it clear to everybody that a knowledge of foreign languages is a national necessity; *adversely*, because it gave the country a wrong idea of the difficulty of the task. The extravagant claims that have been made regarding the linguistic achievements of the military men through the employment of a new and scientific method, big with magical effects, have given rise to false notions as to the speed and ease with which foreign languages can be learned. The ordinary administrator reasons logically: "if men of 25 or older can, in a few weeks, learn to read or to speak a foreign language, and, in a few months, learn to read it well and to speak it fluently, often 'like a native,' it should not be difficult, indeed it should be easier to do the same for our regular students, who are younger! All that is necessary is for the teachers to renounce their antiquated methods and boldly to espouse the newly discovered 'natural' method!"

It is very unfortunate that this notion was allowed to gain credence, for it is bound to do much harm.

The method, improperly called "natural," is about as new as any new moon. It has been used in many places, and in many different circumstances. We know exactly what can be expected of it in our American schools. In a two-year course, organized and taught under the prevailing conditions as to size of class, number of recitations per week, and the usual attitude of the students, the latter will carry away nothing more than the ability to jabber the language of an illiterate on a very limited number of topics.

Since few would not agree that such training cannot be considered a proper educational objective, it is suggested that those administrators who intend to prescribe in their schools the method used with the Army men, and those teachers who are anxious to try what seems new to them, first give some thought to the following facts or considerations: The A.S.T. program was an emergency task with a special and limited goal, and it was carried out under conditions which will not be, and, in some cases, should not be duplicated in standard classes. These conditions were: 1) A very high percentage of army "beginners" had had previous language training, while in normal classes beginners really are beginners—a powerful factor in determining both method and achievement; 2) The amount of time given to the A.S.T.P. men—from 15 to 17 hours a week—is from three to four times that given the regular classes in normal time; 3) The size of the A.S.T.P. classes was from three to four times smaller than that of our ordinary classes, which means that students could be given from three to four times as much actual practice in the *use* of the language; 4) In the army programs, reading and writing were no objectives, so that all the time and effort were concentrated on the oral aspects of the language, while in our civilian programs about half of all our time must be given to reading, and some time to writing. Several other favorable conditions existed in the A.S.T. programs which do not exist in normal classes, namely: The students had been selected with great care both for general intelligence and for linguistic background or aptitude and were promptly eliminated if they could not keep step with the rest of the class; all students had the same objective, and all gave their full cooperation. These facts should make it clear to every thoughtful person that, under normal conditions, it is utterly impossible to impart to our students the same oral command of the language as that achieved by the Army men.

But what is perhaps even more worthy of consideration is the fact that the results achieved by the Army men are not a desirable objective for civilian students, even if they were attainable. The peace-time objectives of foreign language instruction must be deeper, broader and must have higher standards of accuracy than the war-time objective.

Before elaborating this point it is necessary to state emphatically, for the sake of those who are not familiar with the study of language, that no one on earth has ever learned a foreign language in twelve hours, or learned to speak like a native in a few semesters, and that no class in the entire A.S.T. program if it was made up of real beginners could have learned to read or to make speeches in the foreign tongue at the end of six or eight weeks of study! These statements, in these forms, should never have been made, for they are dangerously misleading. The army had a single immediate utilitarian aim: for its men to be able to communicate orally with natives of the country they may visit. Because of the urgency of the task, not only was no attempt made to impart to the students an all-sided familiarity with the language, but a special effort was made to teach them a vocabulary chosen for its special utility, to the neglect of a more general vocabulary, and accuracy was subordinated to fluency. Through much practice, concentrated on this single objective, we achieved results that should be eminently useful to our armed forces, but to aim at the same objective in regular classes would be extremely unwise.

Three arguments should be cited in support of this position: *First,* we know that the strength of the conversational ability of each student is in direct proportion to the amount of individual practice he has received; in a class of 25 students meeting four times a week for two years, this amount will be very small, and, consequently, the conversational power of the student slight; *second,* unless conversational power is a natural outgrowth of a systematic and well integrated course, it is soon lost by disuse: it cannot, like the talent in the parable, "be laid away in a napkin and be suddenly brought forth on the day of accounting"; *third,* the ability to converse is not what all students wish or need; many desire or need a reading knowledge, others wish to learn to write, still others desire to be informed of the internal mechanism of language. The suggestion that conversational ability automatically insures reading ability cannot be considered seriously. The conversational power that a student may develop in a two-year course is so limited in scope and in depth that it cannot possibly enable him to read intelligently worth-while material.

* * * * *

## THE "SCIENTIFIC-CONVERSATIONAL" APPROACH

One of the conclusions that the layman is likely to draw from the recent discussions of language work in the Army Specialized Training Program will be that language teachers as such should disappear and make room for two new personages: the linguistic scientist and the foreign assistant, or informant. The function of the former will be to present the theory of sound production and language structure, that of the latter to serve as an instrument of hearing and speaking. This formula is the more dangerous because it is very attractive and because, with some adaptations and deviations, it worked successfully in the A.S.T. program. It is necessary, therefore, to consider its possibilities and its drawbacks when followed in peace-time classes.

While the contributions that can be made by the linguistic scientists are extremely valuable on several counts, they stand in the same relation to the future student of language as does the theory of music to the future student of piano. In both cases the initial stage of learning takes place on the plane of consciousness, but the succeeding stages are antagonistic to conscious effort. Linguistic theory will become functional only to the extent that it is presented at the right time in the right proportion and is accompanied by such an abundance of scientifically conceived and administered practice that the learner is no longer conscious of the theoretical principles he is applying. These assimilative processes require a knowledge and skill which are not usually within the domain of the scientific linguist, nor, as we shall see later, within that of the foreign informant, but rather within that of the well trained teacher who is able to do the work of both the linguistic scientist and the informant, especially that of the former.

### FOREIGN ASSISTANTS

The recently popularized idea of employing foreign assistants is replete with beneficial possibilities provided that their services are used wisely and with discrimination. The following considerations should be weighed by the responsible authorities:

The fact that one was born in a foreign country does not qualify one as a teacher of its language. Free lance foreign instructors were used extensively in many European countries, particularly in England—with deplorable results. A teacher of language should have been trained as a teacher of language, and if he is to teach foreign students he must also know their language with all that this implies in the way of interpretation. Those foreigners who do not meet these requirements should be used, not as teachers, but as assistants, or informants working on lines laid down by a competent native teacher and under his control. The main function of the informant is to speak the language, but he can also be charged with giving comprehension exercises and dictation—after he has been given detailed directives as to procedure. He should never use English and should abstain from making theoretical statements about his language, for, as a rule, he has never studied its sounds or structure.[2]

Schools that employ an informant should resist the temptation to have him engage, prematurely, in conversation exercises. Language study for regular students cannot be a hit-and-miss affair; it must always be systematic and well graded. In all phases and at all stages, the teacher should be careful to build on a solid foundation. For the sake of incentive, the students must, from the beginning, be given the impression that they are learning to speak, but actual conversation can only profitably come after all the ground work has been done. Specifically, before the students are made to talk, they must have been given intensive and systematic practice in pronunciation, articulation, assimilation of model sentences; they must have had adequate opportunity for hearing and for imitating; they must have acquired a sufficient range of active vocabulary, and the necessary habits of correct word order, inflection and syntax.

If this groundwork has not been done or has not been done properly, and the students are made to stumble into haphazard conversation, every lesson will be an intense battle with a multitude of errors, and the students will be learning the pidgin form of the language, thus standing a good chance of becoming permanent exponents of a broken tongue. Many teachers still recall the French which, during the First World War, some of our young men learned in France "just by speaking it with the natives." It was atrocious: every element was wrong: sound, stress, intonation, orthography, grammar, meanings! In addition, the possessors of this knowledge had so much self-assurance that it was nearly impossible to teach them anything.

Above all, teachers of language should be concerned with standards of accuracy; they must accept no form of work which may lead to inaccurate habits of speech. They must always have in mind the following considerations 1) Accuracy is the very hinge on which mutual understanding depends; 2) Correctness in the use of language has educational value, while the slipshod use of it is antagonistic to education; 3) It is infinitely better for a foreigner with a limited knowledge of the language to speak it slowly, but accurately than fast, easily, but incorrectly. In the first case he is considered an educated person—many outstanding, even famous, men belong or belonged to this category—in the second case he is not.

## "No Gains without Pains"

There is no easy short-cut to learning a foreign language. The entire civilized world has been vainly seeking it for several centuries. If we wish our youth to learn foreign languages, our parents will have to pay the cost, our students will have to furnish the time and the effort, and our teachers will have to stop putting their faith in magic methods or devices. We need no new experiments, investigations, studies: we have been indulging in these "scholarly pursuits" for many years, and the shelves in our professional libraries are bending under the weight of the published "findings." They have been and will be futile as long as the fundamental requirements are not met, namely: an adequate amount of time and labor, and competent teaching. Our youth are made of the same stuff as those of any other cultured people. It *was not* true to say that they are not as capable linguistically as the others, and it *is not* true to say that henceforth they will learn faster than the others. Our students, wherever they were rightly taught, never learned less than others in a corresponding amount of time, and they will not now learn in two or three years what it takes others six or seven years to learn.

The following conditions will raise the level of attainment in modern foreign languages in direct proportion to the extent to which they are met:

1. *Competent teachers.* Concretely this means: teachers who have a complete mastery of the language in all its aspects and branches, who are familiar with the life and civilization of the country and, whenever possible, maintain contact with its people, and who have had adequate professional training.

2. *A much longer period of instruction* than the two years now grudgingly allotted in most schools to foreign language study. Two years is too short a period of time for an adequate mastery of a language in all its aspects, as is amply proved by the fact that in nearly all other countries the length of a foreign language course is never less than six years. We need an earlier start and concentration on *one language* by each student until it is relatively mastered. Whether the aim be cultural or utilitarian, one language thoroughly learned is infinitely better than a smattering of two or three.

3. *Smaller classes* than is ordinarily the case now. Teaching a living language is not essentially different from teaching someone to play the violin: it requires much practice under supervision. Progress and excellence are, therefore, in reverse proportion to the number of students in the class. The ideal number of students per class would be about ten; twenty, however, is considered fair; forty is an absurdity.

4. *A lighter teaching load* than now prevails in our secondary schools. Teaching by oral methods, especially during the first two years, involves a far greater strain on the teacher than any other subject. In the words of a distinguished English teacher of language and school inspector,[3] "The teacher literally has to do the thinking of some 25 students and at every

moment divine and straighten out the multiple difficulties of each. . . . He also has to keep all the time the whole class interested, actively participating." The extra strain of the language teacher is not merely on the voice, but on his entire economy. After about four classes, a teacher that is alert and active is ordinarily good for nothing, owing to his utter exhaustion. This, by the way, is the main reason why many teachers, among the best trained and the most enthusiastic, and who know the value of oral methods, soon fall back on less exacting ways of teaching.

In conclusion I wish to make the following practical observations: The utterly unsatisfactory conditions under which foreign languages are taught in this country are due to three causes: 1) Languages have been considered either as a frill or as a requirement imposed by impractical professors; 2) Teachers, and students, have been so used to low standards that they have not realized how low these standards really are; 3) The general public has been led to believe that insufficient attainments are due to no other cause than faulty methods of instruction. However, now that the first and most important of these three causes is almost completely out of the way, it should not be difficult to eliminate the remaining two. To achieve this result teachers should take two steps: *First*, they should realize themselves that our standards are very low, and that these cannot be raised to an adequate level by shifts in method; *Second*, they should inform the students and their parents of these facts. They should tell them frankly that this great country, which rightly claims to be second to none in so many respects, is second to all in competent use of foreign languages, and that this serious disadvantage is due exclusively to the fact that the teaching conditions which prevail in most of our schools are also second to those of all other civilized countries. One single fact should suffice to convince the most skeptical among them, namely that the standard length of our language course, two years, is the shortest of all that prevail in other civilized countries.[4]

These two steps should progressively bring about the desired improvements in language instruction in this country.

## NOTES

1. In some of the Scandinavian countries and in Japan it is ten.
2. See: Leonard Bloomfield's *Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages* (Special Publication of the Linguistic Society of America, 1942).
3. Cloudesley Brereton.
4. See *The Modern Language Journal*, October 1944. (Note on p. 461.)

# 12 : REPORTS, PROPOSALS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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## SOME PROPOSALS BY THE COMMITTEE OF TWELVE

CALVIN THOMAS, *et al.*
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[From *Report of the Committee of Twelve*, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1900.]

### MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

(pp. 37 ff.) The committee feel that it would be futile to attempt here an answer to the question whether it is or is not desirable, in the abstract, that a foreign language be taught in the primary grades of our public schools. The question in its politico-social bearings is a very large one, but it is a question which every community must and will decide for itself in view of local conditions, and the wisdom of its decision must abide the test of experience. We believe, however, that experience is already sufficient to enable us to formulate certain general principles which should always be kept in view in the practical management of the matter under consideration.

In the first place, if a foreign language is taken up in the primary grades, it should always be as an optional study. This point seems to require no argument. The value of the study is at best so uncertain, so dependent upon circumstances of one kind or another, that the work should not be made obligatory for anyone.

In the second place, it is not worth while, as a rule, that the study of a foreign language be taken up in the primary grades unless the beginner has at least a prospect and an intention of going [illegible] through the secondary school.

* * * * *

In the third place, if a foreign language is taught in the primary grades, it should be by teachers who handle the language easily and idiomatically. Classes should be as small as possible and there should be at least one exercise on each school day. Infrequent lessons in large classes amount to nothing. It is important that the teacher know his pupils intimately and be able to adapt his instruction to their individual needs. The general aim should be to familiarize the learner with the vocabulary and phraseology of the spoken language and to teach him to express himself readily and correctly in easy sentences. The free use of objects and pictures is to be recommended.

* * * * *

Our principal object in touching here upon the subject of the six-year secondary curriculum was to prepare the way for an expression of the opinion that, where such extended courses are provided, a modern language can be very advantageously begun in the seventh grade.

* * * * *

It may also be remarked, finally, that one who wishes to acquire a modern language thoroughly will always do well to begin in childhood. The later period of youth is distinctly a bad time to begin. In childhood the organs of speech are still in a plastic condition. Good habits are easily formed; bad habits more easily corrected. The mind acts more naively, and the memory is tenacious of whatever interests. Forms of expression are readily mastered as simple facts. Later in life, in proportion as the mind grows stronger, it also grows more rigid. The habit of analyzing and reasoning interferes more or less with the natural receptivity of the child. The fixation of speech habits in the mother tongue makes it increasingly difficult to acquire even a moderately good pronunciation, and perfection is usually out of the question.

## PROPOSAL OF THREE NATIONAL GRADES OF PREPARATORY INSTRUCTION IN THE MODERN LANGUAGES

(p. 43) For the purpose of simplifying the relation between the colleges and the secondary schools and for the purpose of securing greater efficiency and greater uniformity in the work of the schools it is hereby proposed that there be recognized, for the country at large, three grades of preparatory instruction in French and German, to be known as the elementary, the intermediate, and the advanced, and that the colleges be invited to adopt the practice of stating their requirements in terms of the national grades.

*Explanatory.*—The proposed three grades are designed to correspond normally to courses of two, three, and four years, respectively, the work being supposed to begin in the first year of a four-year high-school course, and to proceed at the uniform rate of four recitations a week.

The elementary course is designed to furnish the minimum of preparation required by a number of colleges in addition to the Latin or Greek of the classical preparatory course. The intermediate course is designed to furnish the preparation required by many colleges which permit the substitution of a modern language for Greek. The advanced course is designed to furnish the highest grade of preparation of which the secondary school will ordinarily be capable in a four-year course.

## SUMMARIZING CONCLUSIONS: CONTENT OF THE COURSE

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[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, N. Y. 1929. P.A.C.C. Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 169–170) 1. The choice of the basic vocabulary, of the idiomatic expressions and of the grammatical topics for study and drill in the elementary stages of the modern language course has hitherto been made largely on the basis of tradition, of chance or of individual judgment, and great diversity prevails, particularly with respect to the stock of words and idioms emphasized at this level. Wise use of word and idiom counts will enable teachers to introduce their students from the outset to the stock of words and phrases that they will most need for reading. We may hope with considerable confidence that ways will be found to render possible the more difficult task of providing similar apparatus in the field of syntax.

2. Investigations of the "realia," or "cultural" elements, in the modern language course reveal, as might have been expected, that the amount of explicit material of this kind in the texts commonly read is small and unevenly distributed. It is, therefore, all the more necessary for teachers to keep in view the aim of acquainting their students with various aspects of the foreign civilization and to make definite provision therefor in order to supplement the material in the books chosen. In this connection, the teacher's responsibility for an adequate knowledge of the geography, the history, the literature, the customs of the foreign country, through study and reading and through personal contacts, is even more exacting than has commonly been assumed.

3. Experience and statistical evidence in teaching the vernacular indi-

cate that the amount of reading that pupils do is directly related to achievement both in rate of silent reading and in comprehension. Furthermore, experiments show conclusively that increasing the amount of reading that is required results in rapid progress in rate and in comprehension. Experimental data in the modern language field warrant the hypothesis that there is a close correspondence between limited reading experience and the poor attainment in reading by large numbers of second- and third-year students as attainment is evaluated by the American Council reading tests and by teacher opinion. It is fair to assume that if, as the result of a shift of emphasis, the amount of reading were considerably increased in modern language classes, there would result more rapid growth in rate and in comprehension, as has been clearly demonstrated in the case of classes in the vernacular.[1]

Since reading ability is the one objective on which all agree, classroom efforts during the first two years should center primarily on developing the ability to understand the foreign language readily through the eye and through the ear. The goal must be to read the foreign language directly with a degree of understanding comparable to that possessed in reading the vernacular. In order that students may attain this goal, reading experience must be adequate and the results of all other types of class exercise must converge toward the same end.

In order that more abundant and more attractive reading material may be provided, modern language departments and committees on modern language courses should draw up considerable lists of reading texts in the foreign languages that are attractive to the varying tastes and interests of adolescents and of older students—fiction, drama, books of travel, history, science, biography and the like—and should make the texts available in school collections for free reading and for reading on assigned topics. Local, state and regional modern language associations can contribute very definitely to the realization of such a plan.

## NOTES

[1] Because of the length of the manuscript of this report it was impossible to submit copies to all the members of the Committee on Direction and Control. Copies of the "Summarizing Conclusions" were sent to each member and criticisms invited. In reply, three members of the Committee, Messrs. Hohlfeld, Roux and de Sauzé, expressed grave doubts as to the validity of the conclusions involved in this paragraph. In view of this dissent, at the invitation of the writer, Professor Hohlfeld has kindly consented to formulate his opinion regarding the question at issue and this has been approved by Mr. Roux and Mr. de Sauzé. It is as follows:

"I cannot but believe that the unsatisfactory results which obtain are generally due to causes but little, if at all, remediable by increasing the ground that is to be covered. In cases where even a limited amount of work is inadequately done—and they are the ones that bring down the general average—a considerable increase in reading requirements, even though this be offset by lessening the time spent on other exercises and by devoting more time to actual practice in reading, is likely to do more harm than good, and may even prove a step backward in the direction of reading by translation."

## SUMMARIZING CONCLUSIONS: ORGANIZATION OF CLASSES

[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States,* N. Y. 1929. P.A.C.C. Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 232–233) 1. The attainment in one year in modern languages in secondary schools is in general so small when measured in terms of knowledge of the language that only under exceptional circumstances may the study of the subject for one year only be considered educationally advisable.

2. Because of the complexity of the task of learning a modern language, particularly when laying substantial foundations for speaking is among the objectives, and because of the apparent need for a somewhat prolonged period of contact with a new language in order to profit fully by the cumulative effect of this type of learning, interested and successful students should not only be enabled to pursue the subject during a minimum period of three years, but should be definitely encouraged to do so by school authorities. To this end, existing two-year courses in secondary schools should be lengthened, and college authorities should exercise some control over the too frequent practice under which entering freshmen elect a new language, instead of continuing one in which they have had a two-year course or less in secondary school. The extent to which this latter situation prevails indicates a definite lack of correlation between the work done in secondary school and what the college expects. A more sympathetic study of the question by both types of institutions should bring about greater harmony in the choice of objectives and in attainment by students.

3. If, for local reasons, only a two-year course is feasible, or if, in any instance, a considerable percentage of students discontinue the modern language at the end of the fourth semester, it is particularly recommended that the course be organized with ability to read the modern language directly as the central aim, with an acceptable standard of reading ability as the minimum attainment requisite for passing.

4. The lack of homogeneity in knowledge of the subject by modern

language students grouped in the same classes is lamentable. Equally distressing is the wide diversity in standards of achievement in different schools, and even in the same schools at different semester levels. Students may be placed more discriminatingly by the use of scores on uniform, comprehensive and objectively scored tests administered to all who are enrolled in modern languages, and supplemented by scholastic records, teachers' judgments and other pertinent data. It would also be highly advantageous both to pupils and to effective teaching in modern languages if school authorities would coöperate in grouping students on the basis of their previous scholastic record and of scores on intelligence tests, and if they would make it possible to reclassify or to drop from the subject those who do not keep up with their classes, whether from incapacity or from other causes.

5. Students who fail have in many schools the opportunity to repeat the subject twice or oftener or to begin another modern language. Such records of repeaters as are accessible suggest that this is not often profitable to the student, and that each individual case should be examined for the purpose of ascertaining whether it would be better for the student to continue in the language work or to take another subject.

6. Teachers would find it profitable to study the technique of constructing objective tests, based on the material of their course, to standardize them roughly for local or departmental purposes, to keep records of student performance from semester to semester based on such tests, on others more fully standardized and on intelligence scores, and thus to establish local standards of attainment and of progress.

7. The percentage of continuation in modern language, both in high school and in junior high school, should be studied in every school and school system over a period of several years. In cases where it is low, it should be determined whether this is due to individual or to administrative conditions or to weaknesses in the instruction. Careful analyses of a number of local situations would furnish a basis for the general inferences which can not now be drawn for lack of sufficient data.

8. Objective, uniform and comprehensive tests, properly constructed and standardized, and supplemented by information concerning the students' secondary school record, would be of great value to colleges for the placement of incoming students, and are recommended to such accrediting agencies as the College Entrance Examination Board for the testing of achievement and for placement.

9. In all departments of two or more teachers in the same modern language, great profit would result from coöperation in the establishment of objectives, of course-content, of method, and of standards of attainment by uniform testing. In large schools a more centralized depart-

mental direction is an advantage, and in school systems much is to be gained by placing all the modern language work under the supervision of competent specialists, who will work in collaboration with the city organization for educational research.

◆

## GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

[From *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States,* N. Y. 1929. P.A.C.C. Vol. XII. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company, publishers.]

(pp. 277–278) The Committee on Investigation has arrived at certain other conclusions of a general nature, although based on less specific data than those that have been formulated at the close of the several chapters of this discussion.

1. Principals and administrators should exercise greater care in selecting modern language teachers with a suitable training. It is better to eliminate modern language instruction from a school than to retain the subject at the price of ineffective teaching by poorly equipped instructors.

2. The work of modern language teachers in the classroom makes heavy demands upon their energies, especially if they endeavor to use the foreign language in the early stages of the course. Their burden of papers to correct, of conferences with individual students for remedial purposes, and of successful guidance of language clubs and dramatic productions, adds so considerably to the drain on their physical resources as to restrict in a detrimental way their opportunities for making fresh contacts through reading and study with the literature and the history of the foreign country. Their teaching load should be lightened in the interest both of their teaching and of improved scholarship.

3. Teachers of modern languages find it of the greatest value to travel and study in the foreign country, in order to increase their ability to use the language and to develop a sense of more intimate contact with the country and the people. It is, however, often impracticable for them to do this unless school authorities give aid by a policy of leaves of absence on full or part pay, or by making some other financial adjustment.

4. Schools will encourage the development of reading power in modern languages if they provide suitable library facilities for free and assigned reading, in which should figure newspapers, illustrated magazines, books of travel, history, science, and fiction.

5. Modern language departments should be provided with maps, pictures, posters, and, where possible, with lantern slides, a phonograph and records, and similar apparatus.

6. Very few school principals or higher officials are drawn from the ranks of modern language teachers. As a result teachers in our field too often have a feeling that administrative officers are less well informed about their problems than about those of other departments. If principals took this into account, and showed their appreciation of the effort that modern language teachers are now making to fulfill their task in a professional spirit, the results would be educationally beneficial.

7. As it will appear from even a hasty reading of the pages of this report, the problems pertaining to the teaching and learning of modern languages that have not been adequately studied are still numerous and important, despite the efforts of the Committee on Investigation of the Study. It would be of the greatest advantage to future work in the field if a research institute or some similar agency were established to continue in specific directions this inquiry, which in the nature of the case has been necessarily concerned largely with surveying the general field, for only thus could the problems be discovered and delimited.

## TWELVE-POINT PROGRAM OF THE SECONDARY EDUCATION BOARD

[From *A Survey of Modern Languages in Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1939–1940,* Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts, pp. 19–21.]

A careful study of the charts, statistics and their accompanying explanations will reveal that modern language study suffers from striking inequalities of time allotment, and that a small, but significant percentage of schools feel that this allotment is inadequate, in view of the results which they are expected to obtain. The value of attempting to increase and equalize these time allowances could scarcely be questioned except by those not interested in, or blind to the increasing importance of modern languages today. The Committee feels that the time is now ripe to take action on this and other salient points raised by the Survey. It therefore urges that such action be taken, by all concerned, regarding the following proposals not only affecting vitally all phases of modern language work, but also bearing upon general educational development.

### TWELVE-POINT PROGRAM

1. To make a reasonable and exact statement of the aims and values of modern language study in Elementary and Secondary Schools which

will meet with the approval of educationists and administrators. This statement must be sufficiently sound and practical to win for those languages the recognition they deserve, both as humanistic studies and also as a definite means of promoting a sympathetic understanding of foreign peoples, their civilization and culture as well as for their value in international intercourse.

2. To determine measures and procedures whereby the sociological values of the modern languages may be emphasized and increased, and to make recommendations which will insure closer and more extensive cooperation with the departments of English and Social Studies.

3. To devise substantial courses for the lower levels of the elementary schools, thus eliminating the "play courses," which produce no appreciable results.

4. To establish unified and continuous courses, with adequate time allotment, beginning at different levels in the elementary and secondary schools and providing for varying types of linguistic ability. In 1932 the Committee was asked by the General Curriculum Commission of the Secondary Education Board to set up a program of Modern Language courses for secondary schools which would allow for a maximum expansion of modern languages with a minimum of interference with the other subjects of the curriculum. This program was published in the Committee's report of 1933 . . . but the Questionnaire replies have made it evident that this syllabus has not been widely adopted. * * * *

5. To overcome in various types of Elementary and Secondary schools the existing inequalities in the time spent on modern languages, which now result in great waste in the educational process, and in the normal progress of students, especially in the case of transference from one school to another. * * * *

6. To determine in the light of experience and modern experiment what types of pupils should be debarred from taking the traditional modern language courses, thus easing the burden of administrators and teachers, and permitting greater concentration on quality production. Such action should be taken as will insure the carrying out of this decision in such a way that it will not affect either a student's standing in school, diploma requirements, or admission to any college.

7. a) To reduce the amount of language study required for students of mediocre linguistic ability by establishing for them the requirement of one foreign language only, Latin or Greek being accepted on an equal basis with any modern language.

b) To provide for such students differentiated courses in which the emphasis will be placed primarily on establishing an ability to read, and on the acquirement of a substantial amount of information about the life, civilization and culture of the peoples whose languages are studied.

8. To persuade College Admission Committees and College Departments of Modern Languages to grant units of credit to students pursuing courses mentioned in Article 7, and to engage the College Entrance Examination Board, with the authority of the Colleges, to provide a differentiated type of examination in the modern languages, requiring only the attainment of the one reading skill plus the cultural information heretofore mentioned. Students who are linguistically normal or gifted, and who are likely to pursue higher courses in language and literature in college would still prepare for the traditional foreign language examinations involving the greater variety of skills laid down in the College Board's *Statements of Requirements in Modern Languages.* A mere glance at these requirements will show what an impossible task now devolves upon teachers to prepare students of mediocre linguistic ability to meet all the requirements outlined within the limited time allotments at their disposal. The general result has been that schools have neglected many of the desirable features of modern language study which are not or cannot be tested on a written examination, and have regimented good, bad and indifferent linguists solely on the elements contained from year to year in examinations. Linguistically gifted students, when thrown together with others less gifted, have thereby had to sacrifice all the advantages which should come to them from modern language study, and have been largely deprived of the enjoyment to be found in it. In this connection, note . . . the small percentage of schools at present able to carry students beyond the College Entrance Examination Board fourth-year level.

9. To secure the restoration of Italian to the position it once held and still deserves, and its recognition by Colleges and by the College Entrance Examination Board as a subject worthy of admission credits.

10. To secure for Spanish, in keeping with our "good neighbor" international policy, wide recognition and favor in school programs and by Colleges; and to accord it a position of equality with other foreign languages.

11. To secure a recognition of the superior value of any European language, widely spoken in the community and adequately taught in its schools, over the traditional, partially-mastered French, German, or Spanish; and to induce Colleges to accord to students proficient in these rarer languages, full equality in entrance or advance credit with any of the more commonly accepted languages.

12. To seek a complete revision of the units of credit now granted on examinations passed—still largely based on the number of years a language has been studied rather than on the establishment of skills. A

single examination of a progressive and comprehensive type should be devised, without the present divisions between two-, three-, and four-year levels. This examination should enable candidates, regardless of the number of years a language has been studied, to receive units of credit commensurate with the degree of mastery attained. To persuade Colleges to give additional units of credit to pupils from accredited schools who are certified as having acquired an exceptionally good command of written and oral expression. In similar fashion, an arrangement with the Colleges is to be sought whereby they will give credits for a college degree to students who have satisfactorily completed in the Secondary School higher courses in language and literature which are equivalent to advanced freshman or to sophomore courses in college, and which go beyond the fourth-year level of the College Entrance Examination Board.

## FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Irving Amdur
*N. Y. C. Schools*

[From *HP*, Feb. 1943, 38–46.]

The following article is the report of a committee of teachers appointed to recommend changes in the junior high school foreign language course in keeping with the elimination of foreign language study from grade 8A. The recommendations set forth in this article have already gone into effect at Junior High School 30, Manhattan, and have produced highly gratifying results. Since the problems dealt with in this report affect all teachers of foreign languages, both in the senior and junior high schools, it is hoped that the teachers of both divisions will consider the report and communicate their reactions to the writer.

The writer, who served as chairman of his committee, is indebted to his co-members, Mr. Joseph Ramras and Mr. Jerome T. Feinstein, for their conscientious criticisms and suggestions.

*The problem and the approach.* The present committee was originally assigned the task of merely recommending excisions from the present junior high school course of study. In view of the appalling decline of foreign language study in recent years, the committee decided to do more than that. It set itself the problem of building a new course of study whose intrinsic values would be more convincing than ever to pupils, parents, educators, and educational authorities.

The committee employed two broad principles in arriving at its recommendations. First, it proposed to urge the elimination of all curricular materials which are valueless in and of themselves to the great number of pupils who do not continue with foreign languages in high school. Second, the committee resolved to advocate the excision of those phases of the subject which cannot find ready and satisfying application in daily life in and out of school and which are consequently unlearnable for all practical purposes.

Concerning the purely linguistic work, the committee recommends that the junior high school confine its efforts chiefly to *reading enjoyable, graded materials in narrative, dramatic, and poetic form.* The upper years of the senior high school and the college can teach grammatical theory and refinements to those few superior students who have some special need for such knowledge. The notion that a foreign grammar has some magical universal disciplinary value is dead. Let's bury it.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the above considerations the committee agreed to make a number of specific recommendations in reading, idioms, vocabulary, grammar, conversation, and cultural study. The committee agreed further to urge that all pupils who enter the high school from grade 8B, be given the same course of study in terms one and two as they would have had in 8B, 9A, and 9B. The specific recommendations follow.

### READING

1. Wherever possible, eliminate reading passages which do not have an interesting point or possibilities for enjoyable dramatization.
2. Employ all the principles and techniques discussed in connection with intensive and extensive reading in the current syllabus on pages 7 through 24. Give especial attention to the techniques listed on pages 31, 32, 33, and 34.

### IDIOMS

Eliminate all idioms which cannot be kept alive through repeated use in unforced and varied situations. This would include all idioms which do not occur in the school's reading materials and which do not arise frequently and naturally in daily life inside and outside of the classroom. Since different texts are used in different schools, the committee urges the abolition of a uniform idiom list for all schools. It should be the responsibility of each school to compile its own idiom list with due regard for the capacity of its pupils and for the textbooks and other materials it employs.

### VOCABULARY

1. Do not require memorization of daily or weekly vocabulary lists.

2. Do not drill on isolated word-lists as such.

3. Drop such requirements as memorization of the genders of nouns, principal parts of nouns and verbs, lists of irregular adjective comparisons, etc.

4. Confine vocabulary practice to dramatizations, games, classroom directions, conversations, and meaningful sentences and word-patterns bearing on cultural studies and reading materials. (See pages 31, 32, 33, and 34 of the current syllabus). But this type of work must be done in judicious amounts; it must not be carried to the point where it becomes boring or where the prospect of reading becomes unpleasant.

5. Strive only for such mastery of vocabulary as will enable the child to read a new story containing the given words with pleasure, with full understanding, and without hesitation.

6. Teach cognates in order to enlarge the child's recognitional vocabulary in the foreign language and also in order to expand, correct, and lend fascination to his working stock of English words. For instance, the cognate of *getrunken* should be taught in such a way as to banish the error: He has *drank* his milk. Avoid cognates that are more apt to confuse than to guide; e.g., *das Tier*—deer.

7. Consider the ability to read a passage in the foreign language with full comprehension to be a sufficient test of knowledge of the words contained therein.

### GRAMMAR

1. In general, there are only three occasions when the teaching of a grammatical principle in a foreign language is justified in a junior high school recognitional reading program: (a) when the grammatical principle is truly indispensable to reading with comprehension; (b) when the grammatical principle of the foreign language directly illuminates and reinforces correct English usage; (c) when the children ask for the explanation of a grammatical principle within their grasp. All other grammatical teaching is likely to do more harm than good and should be dropped.

2. It would be wise to drop all grammatical drills, lessons, and tests involving manipulation of inflectional endings, case forms, verb forms,

etc. Such exercises may seriously endanger the achievement of our objectives. Overconsciousness of inflectional endings impedes rhythmic eye movements. Exercises devoted to endings and forms tend almost inevitably to become unpalatable ends in themselves. Any cursory examination of homework books and test papers would reveal that such exercises do not produce the accurate responses for which they are intended. To cling to them is to retain a program predestined to defeat and discouragement. Drill needs can be met through the use of varied types of questions based on the reading—questions frequently containing in themselves (or in the text passage referred to) the forms needed in the answers.

3. The following grammatical topics should probably be omitted: conjugations and paradigms: principal parts; genders of nouns; lists of prepositions governing various cases; the dative of the indirect object; drills of tense forms. Despite the absence of definitive scientific findings as to exactly what constitutes "recognitional grammar," it appears safe to assert that reading materials on the junior high school level can be readily grasped without previous formal drill in the above topics and rules. For all practical purposes in the junior high school it is sufficient if pupils learn difficult grammatical forms as recognitional vocabulary.

4. On the junior high school level, there is probably no need for a definite list of grammatical topics to be required of all pupils. Different neighborhoods of varying economic, racial, and national composition may present different needs.

5. A test of reading power at the proper level is a sufficient test of grammatical adequacy in junior high school work.

6. It is probable that exercises of a new special kind are necessary to facilitate the development of recognitional power in reading. A number of such new type exercises are suggested below. Most textbooks do not contain such aids. Therefore, it is advisable that they be prepared in advance by the teacher on little slips or cards. At the beginning of the period they may be copied on the black-boards by pupils and then used after the day's story or dramatization has been completed. Of course, these exercises should be derived from the pupil's past and current reading and should be realistically designed to remove perplexities from future reading. The following examples are only suggestive; many more types will be devised by teachers. (Some of the exercises described below might seem more fitting if appended to a discussion of reading techniques rather than to a discussion of grammar. They are deliberately placed here, however, to stress the entirely ancillary role that grammar should play in the future).

(a) Pupils arrange previously prepared groups of words into logical columns: for example, scrambled nouns into singular and plural columns; scrambled verbs into present, past, and future columns; scrambled numerals into cardinal and ordinal columns; etc.

(b) Pupils write a foreign language summary of a story just read by (1) matching sentence halves; (2) putting sentences into correct sequence; (3) selecting only the relevant and true sentences from a larger number; (4) copying the true sentences and correcting the false ones; (5) doing an exercise in which every sentence represents a multiple choice.

## CONVERSATION

Delightful conversational situations can be created in the classroom through the use of techniques such as the following:

1. Elicit from the children and write on the blackboard a brief humorous or otherwise interesting dialogue in English. The dialogue should be short enough to be acted in about two minutes. Then, getting as many suggestions from the pupils as possible, put on the board a translation of the dialogue in the foreign language. Have the pupils copy the foreign dialogue *accurately*. Dramatization can now begin. The dialogue can be enacted every day for about a week, each time with some new imaginative twist. This activity need take only a few minutes of each period. Children enjoy the varying repetitions. Painlessly, they commit the whole dialogue to memory and with it they absorb a rich supply of idioms, models of form, vocabulary items, etc.

2. Invite the children to bring in newspaper jokes, comic strips, or Sunday comic supplements. Select the most promising ones and treat them as described above in 1.

3. Let a pupil conduct the lesson, giving all commands in the foreign language. (Previous individual coaching may be necessary).

These exercises are invaluable for the achievement of active as well as recognitional mastery of the foreign language. One full period each week may well be set aside for working out a new dialogue.

## CULTURAL STUDIES

1. The objective to be sought in the teaching of a foreign culture is not a haphazard miscellany of trivial and incoherent facts about the foreign country; the objective is rather the enrichment and refinement of the pupil's life in his present environment. There is no point in preparing the child to live in the France, Italy, or Germany of yesteryear; there is very much point in quickening and guiding his interests in and reactions to the America of today.

2. In the light of the objective stated above, mere isolated facts about foreign cities, rivers, mountain ranges, travel facilities, tourist landmarks, deserve scant attention unless they can be made to throw a new, clear light on some aspect of the child's daily life and environment.

3. The present committee urges that the teaching of foreign cultures be directed to the following ends:

(a) arousing the child's curiosity about the finer music heard on the radio and in concert halls;

(b) affording the child the thrill of hearing and singing some of the songs written by great composers of the foreign country;

(c) helping the child to experience the pleasure of identifying certain architectural styles employed in America through an elementary presentation of certain historic foreign architectural developments;

(d) instilling in the child a new appreciation of scientific phenomena and a new reverence for the high ideals of service to humanity and of scientific integrity implicit in the work of great foreign scientists;

(e) awakening a deeper enthusiasm for the benefits of democracy and a greater sympathy toward refugees and other victims of despotism through an elementary study of such men as Mazzini, Zola, Heinrich Heine, Thomas Mann, Albert Einstein, etc.;

(f) refining the child's socio-civic attitudes and ethical insights through simplified study of the work of such men as Schiller, Lessing, de Montesquieu, Michelangelo;

(g) improving reading tastes, providing a store of basic literary allusions, and creating a sense of literary values by telling the stories of great foreign masterpieces of literature, such as *Don Quixote, The Divine Comedy, Cyrano, Faust, Don Karlos, Nathan the Wise;*

(h) creating a desire in the child to visit the art galleries and museums of this city;

(i) reducing the gap between our pupils on the one hand and their foreign-born parents and immigrants on the other hand by creating an appreciative respect for foreign manners, customs, and values;

(j) satisfying the adolescent's craving for heroes to worship by setting before him a series of vivid, exciting, and inspiring brief biographies of the creative geniuses of the foreign country who contributed to the humane arts and sciences;

(k) encouraging the expression and pursuit of the child's individual talents, inclinations, and interests;

(l) improving the child's library skills and reference techniques;

(m) improving the child's poise and speech in audience situations;

(n) providing a great range of exploratory experiences rich in vocational and avocational suggestions and helpful in matters of educational and vocational guidance.

(NOTE: In all the various fields explored in connection with cultural study, teachers should keep careful records of all observations significant for guidance purposes.)

The committee urges that in each language from thirty-five to forty topics be selected to serve as a tentative guide for cultural study. For the most part, these topics should be brief biographies of outstanding geniuses who contributed significantly in the fields of music, literature, drama, science, the plastic and graphic arts, architecture, exploration. It may be well to take up these topics in grades 9A and 9B, and to stress simple songs in grade 8B. One to one and one-half periods out of every five should be devoted to such cultural study. Limitations of space do not permit a listing of specific topics for each language in the present article.

5. The following procedures are suggested in connection with the topics listed above:

(a) Motivate the topic in English by means of an interesting story, a challenging question, a display of pictures, a relevant personal reminiscence, an interrogative allusion to some related phenomenon in American life, an anecdote.

(b) Call for previously assigned research reports in English by individual pupils or committees on aspects of the topic under discussion. Wherever advisable, supplementary questions and remarks by the teacher may be interposed. Three, four, or five outstanding, easily understood, and vitally interesting points on the topic will suffice for classroom discussion.

(c) Demonstrate the topic by (1) a playing of phonograph recordings, (2) a brief, previously rehearsed dramatization by the pupils of striking passages in English, (3) a reading of artistic translations and then of the foreign original, (4) an exhibition of slides, still films, Balopticon projections, picture postcards, book illustrations, pupils' drawing, projects, constructions.

(d) Present as a very brief reading lesson a short summary in the foreign language of what has been taken up thus far in the lesson. This reading may be done from mimeographed sheets or from blackboards. (Blackboard material should be prepared in advance on cards or slips by the teacher and given to pupils to copy on the rear boards at the beginning of the period).

(e) Assign for homework five or six questions which are based on the foreign summary and which are to be answered in foreign or English sentences.

(f) Encourage the pupils to earn extra credit by (1) keeping the class informed in advance of appropriate radio broadcasts; (2) writing book reports on related supplementary reading; (3) making drawings and paintings, sculpture pieces, models, or miniature stage sets; (4) finding interesting passages in translations of great foreign books; (5) writing imaginative stories and plays based on the cultural lessons; (6) bringing in realia; (7) preparing related assembly programs.

## ANSWERS TO POSSIBLE CRITICISMS

Any proposed innovation is likely to elicit objections and expressions of doubt from many quarters. This final section of the report is devoted to anticipating and answering the most important of these.

The objection that the proposed course would throw too great a burden upon the high school teacher, especially in the matter of grammar, is unwarranted and probably contrary to fact. For the pupil would approach the more abstract high school work with a happy background of abundant and successful reading activities, with a large fund of incidental grammatical learnings, and with greater maturity and readiness; he would not be forced to return to the hateful scene of past defeats. These factors would ease and not increase the high school teacher's burden.

Some critics might insist that pupils unlikely to continue with foreign languages in high school ought to get a special, simplified course, while those with a brighter educational future should continue with the present syllabus. Such a proposal is most ill-advised. It would create virtually insoluble administrative difficulties, especially in small schools where the added perplexities of semi-annual re-organization would tempt principals to drop foreign languages entirely. There is no reason to fear that gifted pupils would lose anything under the plan proposed in this paper. In fact, they would probably be stimulated more easily than ever to achieve really impressive reading levels and cultural concepts.

Other critics may be prompted to question whether foreign language teachers ought to encroach on the work of teachers of music, civics, art, science, history. These objectors should be reminded that the trend of modern scientific pedagogy is toward ever greater correlation, integration, and fusion. In order that teaching be vital, teachers must avoid airtight compartmentalization and seek to establish abundant interrelationships and mutual reinforcement among the various subjects. The curriculum of democratic education must be a growing, unified and functioning synthesis.

# FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

EUGENE JACKSON
*Chairman, N. Y. C. Language Teachers Association*

[From *HP*, XXVI, 3, March, 1944.]

The *Language Teachers Association*, after a careful study of the problems facing foreign language teaching in New York City, the problems which face us now and those which the post-war period will pose, has come to the conclusion that a *complete re-evaluation of the foreign language set-up in the secondary schools of our city is necessary.* The various problems are so interlocked that they cannot be solved piecemeal. The *Language Teachers Association* has therefore undertaken such a re-evaluation and will offer its findings to the Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents in the form of a foreign language program for the secondary schools of New York City.

The last general evaluation of foreign language teaching in the United States took place in 1929, under the auspices of the Modern Foreign Language Study. The most striking fact brought out by this Study was that 85% of all students studying foreign languages did so for *two years or less*. The most important result of the Study was the recommendation and general acceptance of the *Reading Aim* and the development of methods to attain this aim.

In recommending the *Reading Aim,* the Modern Foreign Language Study discarded as unattainable within the short time that students studied a particular language the so-called fourfold aim of language study: speaking, comprehending, reading and writing the foreign language. Oral use of the language was not to be eliminated entirely but was to be subsidiary to the main aim: *Reading.*

The conclusions and recommendations of the Modern Foreign Language Study were accepted in New York City and in 1937 there was a complete revision of the foreign language syllabus. *Reading* became the main objective, speaking and comprehending to be stressed only in so far as they were conducive to the main aim. There was to be less stress on active grammar and more on recognitional grammar. The civilization of the foreign countries was to be studied largely through the medium of English.

It may be stated that the *Reading Aim* was adopted not as the "Ideal Aim" of foreign language teaching but as the most attainable aim under existing conditions of length of study, class size, student material, etc. Our city teachers have worked hard and intelligently to carry out the *Reading Aim*. They have attained good results despite very definite handicaps, among them being the Regents Examinations which have been very slow in reflecting the *Reading Aim*. Some 40% of the Two Years Regents is still devoted to testing active grammar.

If, therefore, the *Language Teachers Association* is calling for a re-evaluation of language teaching in New York City, it is not because of a lack of success in attaining the *Reading Aim* as laid down in our city syllabus. It is due 1) to the experiences of this global war, which have demonstrated the limitless need for a speaking knowledge of foreign languages, a need which the *Reading Aim* cannot fill, and 2) to the needs of the post-war world, a vastly contracted world, in which formerly distant peoples will be our next door neighbors.

The *Language Teachers Association,* in re-evaluating the whole foreign language set-up, and in recommending a complete foreign language program, will *not* make the mistake of the Foreign Language Study of 1929 which described existing conditions and then sought to adapt objectives and methods to the conditions, bad as they were. We shall set up objectives of foreign language teaching which the needs of the War and Post-War world demand. And we shall ask for conditions in the junior and senior high schools which will enable us to attain those objectives.

Events have clearly demonstrated that for purposes of war, ability to speak and understand the foreign language should be the objective of foreign language study. It is not necessary here to go into all the uses of such ability in the armed services. Suffice it to say that the army language courses set "speaking—comprehending" as their main objectives. In addition, these courses, of which we will have more to say later, stress "Area Studies," which correspond roughly to what our city syllabus calls "Study of the Foreign Civilization."

*We agree with the judgment of our military authorities and urge, as the main objective of war-time foreign language teaching, the ability to speak and comprehend the foreign language.*

*"The study of languages has become not only a part of a complete education but also a matter of necessity, particularly for students of your age, for you are going into an entirely different world from what has been,"* said Mayor La Guardia at the ceremonies introducing the study of Portuguese in the curriculum of Central High School, on November 23, 1943.

Foreign languages have long been studied in Europe because of the close proximity of the European countries. The astounding developments in means of transportation and communication of late years have brought distant neighbors to our very doorstep, so that today knowledge of foreign languages is just as important for the American as it has been for the European. The Biblical injunction *"Love Thy Neighbor"* may be an ideal not easily attainable, but the first step in that direction is *"Know Thy Neighbor,"* and the best key to this knowledge is knowledge of your neighbor's language.

Business, travel, science, art, the policy of the Good Neighbor in a contracted world, all will demand knowledge of foreign languages as never before. The polyglot radio and foreign films will afford daily opportunities for the pleasurable application of such knowledge. And, as we turn from the arts of war to the arts of peace, the eternal cultural values presented in the literatures of foreign countries will again offer rich rewards to those able to read them.

In view of these things, the peace-time objectives of foreign language teaching must be broader and deeper than the war-time objectives, and must at the same time include them. *We therefore urge a return to the fourfold aim of foreign language teaching: Speaking and comprehending, reading and writing, and that conditions be provided in the way of length of course, class size, etc., which will make possible the attainment of this fourfold aim.*

In the early years, speaking and comprehending should be the core of the work. Reading texts should provide useful, everyday vocabulary and should be used largely as a basis for conversation and other oral work. Grammar should be incidental and taught only in so far as it is conducive to fluency of speech and ease in comprehension. After the second year, more stress should be placed upon reading, particularly extensive reading, but the speaking—comprehending aim must not be neglected. In the later years of the course, literary texts should be studied and discussed in the foreign language. Writing, i.e. composition, should also be reserved for the later years.

Throughout the course, there should be a study of the foreign civilization which will constantly increase in breadth and depth. As far as is possible, this should be done in and through the foreign language. In the later years of the foreign language course, the foreign language should be the sole language of the classroom.

Full details as to objectives, methods and content should be worked out in a revised syllabus.

The A.S.T.P. courses which last nine months, and other intensive army language courses, have given rise to false notions as to the speed with which foreign languages can be learned. *The Army courses are not short courses. They are long courses concentrated into a short period of calendar time. Hour for hour, a nine months' A.S.T.P. course is equivalent to about twelve semesters or six years of high school study.* Students in these courses must devote all their time to their language work, both in class and out.

To attain the objectives of language study outlined above, *we recommend that the normal foreign language course be six years.* It should begin in the seventh year of the junior high school (or elementary school) and continue through the twelfth year.

*It is high time that we discard the traditional two and three year language course and adopt the successful practice of European schools which begin the study of the foreign language early and continue it for six or more years.*

We recommend a maximum class size of 30 for language teaching. In classes larger than that the amount of speaking practice possible for each student is altogether too limited. *A.S.T.P. classes for conversational practice run from nine to twelve students.*

Publicity given to the Army language courses has led many people to suppose that some new method has been discovered that provides a royal road to the learning of languages. Actually, the important ingredients of this method are not new: small classes, long hours, rigorous preparation, incessant drill and concentration; the adoption of a definite aim (speaking—comprehending) and the development of a conversational approach to attain that aim.

We foreign language teachers are making a careful study of the army language training program and will, wherever possible, make use of any important contributions in method it may have to offer.

Students in the junior high school (or elementary school) should begin the study of foreign languages in the 7A grade. Exceptions should be those having an I.Q. of less than 90, a definite reading disability in English, or both.

In recommending a six year course, we take it for granted that the vast majority of students will study only one language in the secondary schools. Only students who show unusual linguistic ability should, after two or three years' study of one language, be eligible to elect a second. Eligibility should be based on school record or some form of objective test administered on a citywide basis.

All students, with the exceptions noted above, should begin the study of a foreign language in the seventh year. Those who, at the end of the undifferentiated ninth year, choose to enter the commercial course or the vocational course, should not drop their foreign language. They should continue it with special emphasis on vocational or commercial phases (commercial correspondence, foreign shorthand, etc.).

We recommend that the Board of Superintendents appoint at once a Syllabus Revision Committee made up of chairmen and teachers to draw up a new foreign language syllabus which will meet the objectives of foreign language teaching as outlined above. As this will be an arduous and time-consuming task, the chairmen and teachers chosen for it should be allowed adequate teaching exemptions. This general syllabus should include special syllabi for commercial and vocational students.

When the demand for a new language (Portuguese, Russian, Chinese, etc.) becomes sufficiently strong to warrant its introduction, one school should be chosen in a borough, to which all students wishing to take the language in question would go, without regard to zoning restrictions. If the demand should become sufficiently great, additional schools should be selected in one or more other boroughs.

We have recommended that foreign language study begin in the 7A grade of the junior high school. To make the teaching of languages more effective, we urge that conditions for both students and teachers in the junior high schools be raised to equal those of the senior high schools. More specifically we recommend the following: *Class size:* Average and maximum class size (30) should be the same for senior and junior levels. This is necessary for effective teaching with the aims outlined above. *Teaching Load:* Junior high school teachers of language should teach five periods and have one "free" period as do the teachers of the senior high schools. The large amount of test material to be rated, time for special help for backward students, club activities, gathering, preparing and cataloguing realia, and other important extra-class activities make such a "free" period essential for the junior high school teacher.

We recommend the *eventual* abolition of *all Language Regents* for the following reasons:

1. As constructed at present they act as a strait-jacket on teaching content and teaching methods.

2. They lead to an overloading of the first two years with grammatical material.

3. Passing as many as possible becomes the objective of many language teachers. This leads to cramming and drilling for the Regents and the consequent neglect of some of the worthwhile aims of language teaching.

4. If we adopt the objectives for foreign language teaching recommended above, the Regents Examinations will be entirely inadequate as a testing medium unless completely revised. Past experience shows that such revision lags far behind changes in teaching methods and objectives.

We recommend the *immediate* abolition of the *Two Year Regents*. Such a step would make possible immediate syllabus revision in accordance with modern objectives and permit shift of stress in the first two years from reading to speaking and comprehending.

# RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SURVEY GROUP OF THE COMMISSION ON TRENDS IN EDUCATION

[From *A Survey of Language Classes in the A.S.T.P., Commission on Trends in* Education, Modern Language Association of America, N. Y. 1944, pp. 29–32.]

There was complete agreement among all who participated in the Army language program—teachers and trainees alike—that the general success achieved was due first and foremost to its intensive character. A language course pursued through three twelve-week terms of fifteen contact hours per week under proper supervision did produce noteworthy results. These have been described in detail in the foregoing Report, and only the following primary results need to be indicated:

1. The student after nine months had learned to understand the language as spoken by natives on a variety of subjects.
2. He was able to speak intelligibly on a wide range of subjects.
3. He was able to read the (European) language with considerable facility.
4. He was able to write the (European) language with reasonable skill.

On the basis of the evidence at its disposal the Survey Group wholeheartedly recommends the adoption of intensive courses in beginning language instruction. In the opinion of the Group, the ideal intensive course would consist of fifteen contact hours—not credit hours—weekly. The student electing an intensive course would use up no more units or credit hours for language study than before. To a large extent the time formerly used for outside study would be spent in drill work under the supervision of a native or a bilingual speaker.

The program of fifteen contact hours could, of course, be put into operation more easily under some college schedules than under others. For example, in colleges operating on a sixteen-week term, where five three-hour courses constitute a full schedule, the intensive course might function somewhat as follows. The student elects to take two units of a language during each of two terms, this to be considered the intensive course. At the end of the intensive course (that is, after two terms) he will have satisfied a two-year language requirement. After its completion he may elect a regular course offered by the language department concerned if he wishes, but such a course will not be part of the two-year requirement. In fact, of the courses offered by the language department only one would have to be intensive in nature, though others might be.

Under some college schedules such a program would not be practical or desirable; e.g., where three five-hour courses constitute a full schedule, two-thirds of a student's time for a whole year would have to be devoted to the learning of one language. For these colleges, instead of an intensive course of fifteen contact hours per week, the Survey Group would recommend (1) that the present number of class hours in beginning language courses be at least doubled, without additional credit given but with a far greater part of the student's time spent in drill sessions instead of outside study; and (2) that this "intensified" course be continued until the approximate number of contact hours prescribed in the Army program is reached. Naturally, the number of contact hours per week will be smaller, and it may be that the results will be proportionately less satisfactory. Yet, inasmuch as every other feature of the Army intensive course is embodied here also, it seems reasonable to conclude that the results will prove to be better than those achieved in a traditional course pursued for two years.

The degree of intensification possible in the various colleges depends upon the length of term, the number of credits and hours per course, etc., making it impossible to attempt to outline an intensive language course which could be adopted in all institutions. The Survey Group believes that many experiments will be made before each college decides what type of elementary language course is best suited to its purposes. In making this recommendation the Survey Group merely wishes to emphasize the fact that the Army program achieved excellent results. To achieve comparable results a program similar to it in basic design would seem to be called for.

In addition to the main general recommendation, the Survey Group submits the following specific suggestions:

1. The general ratio of grammar to drill followed in the Army program should be retained in the intensive language course in colleges.
2. The intensive course or its equivalent should be required of all foreign language majors.
3. The intensive course should be optional for all other students.
4. Non-intensive elementary language courses should continue to be available to students not wishing to elect the intensive course.

5. The supervising instructor should be in full charge of the intensive course, in order to insure proper organization of materials, complete coordination between grammar-study and drill sections, close supervision and control of drill sessions, and reliable evaluation of the work of drill-masters.
6. Participation in intensive courses should be undertaken only by teachers who are qualified and willing. The drill-master, if a qualified teacher is not already available, should be an educated native or bilingual speaker; his position in the university or college should be that of a visiting teacher or exchange fellow; he should normally serve two years as drill-master, and his maximum teaching load should be not more than twenty hours per week. He should receive preliminary training before being entrusted with drill work.
7. To insure continued interest and motivation, the material presented in the drill session during the later stages of the course should be closely allied to the student's major field of interest: for example, literature, music, foreign politics, economics, history, etc.
8. During the second half of the course the grammar sessions should be used further to develop the student's reading ability.
9. A central clearing house for information and consultation should be established, with the approval of the various organizations which sponsored the present survey. Such a clearing house would be operated by a group of representative foreign-language teachers. Its functions would be:
   - a. To gather information concerning recent and prospective courses in the new-type language teaching.
   - b. To make this information available to interested administrators, colleagues, and, under proper authorization, to the press.
   - c. To consult and advise with institutions which seek its counsel concerning the establishing of new-type language courses.
   - d. To keep a record of further experimentation in such instruction, and of testing procedures.
   - e. To consult with those institutions planning to train or retrain teachers who will use the new-type instruction.
   - f. To encourage further study and research not only at the center of this new field, but also at various points of its ill-defined periphery in adjacent fields (speech and hearing, films, tests and measurements, psychology, history, political science, etc.).
   - g. To keep available a list of drill-masters in the various languages with such information about each as might be desired by institutions needing native speakers.

  h. To prepare and publish a fairly complete history of recent developments.

10. Teachers in intensive language courses should be granted brief leaves of absence, with pay, in order to permit them to visit and observe intensive classes in other institutions.

## THE ROCKEFELLER LANGUAGE CONFERENCE

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[From *GQ*, XVII, 3, May 1944, 120–130.]

A conference on teaching modern foreign languages was held on April 23–24, 1943, in New York City at the invitation of the Rockefeller Foundation.[1] What follows is intended merely to give a résumé of the mimeographed report which was published at the conclusion of the conference. The discussions were of an informal nature and may not accurately represent the views of each participant in every instance. Further, the reduction of ninety-one pages of single-spaced typing to the compass of this article can scarcely avoid leaving some erroneous impressions. However, since this résumé is intended mainly to high-light the conference with a view to providing stimulating ideas to our modern language teachers, it seems to the writer that no harm can result from a dissemination of general ideas on modern language teaching. Unless the present ferment continues, we shall have lost the effect of the yeast that the "intensive language courses" have provided. Author's comments are relegated to the footnotes.

The purpose of the Conference was to investigate the possibility of incorporating some of the good aspects of the intensified and other new types of experimental language courses into the regular courses given in colleges.[2] Within the framework of these college courses, one of the representatives of the Rockefeller Foundation stated that in these discussions they were "frankly . . . more interested in the first two years of college [language] than in the last two years, since most of the students enrolled throughout the country are in those first two years, which represent for them the total of their language training."[3]

The first item on the agenda of the Conference was a discussion of the "Definition of Intensive Courses—Orientation and Approach." The subjects to be considered under this heading include: requirements as to staff and resources for study, a review of courses already in operation, the possibilities for making intensive courses more generally available as a part of regular college offerings in summer sessions or during the regular year, and new techniques or directions developed in intensive courses which might contribute to the improvement of regular college courses in modern foreign languages. Attention centered mainly on those courses that "begin from the beginning." The average age of the students up to the time of the Conference had been around thirty. The good results were attributed, among other things, to motivation: The students were there because they wanted to be—motivation is an important part of the success of these courses. Since such courses have not been taught in the same way, one conferee said that to speak of an *intensive method* [4] was "perhaps unwise," while another labeled it as "somewhat misleading."

Several interesting ideas emerged from a discussion of language materials and their use: The teaching of language should be integrated with a study of the culture of which that language is a part.[5] Give the students a great deal of opportunity to *hear* the language since, if you are going to a foreign country, you are going to listen more than you are going to speak, and you can still get along with an imperfect speaking knowledge if your aural capacity is well developed in the foreign tongue.[6] It is perhaps better to use only oral-aural approaches at the beginning, only later allowing the student to refer to the printed page.[7] Conversation in classes should follow a definite pattern, with a good deal of emphasis on active student participation in the speaking. No doubt memorization, especially in the early stages, is of great importance, particularly in engraving structure patterns of the dialogue of everyday speech on the mind of the student. Accelerated courses in reading [8] in one of our universities were reported to have yielded excellent student response and results.

On turning to the possibilities of these programs at the secondary school level, divergent views developed. Although one speaker thought the results with secondary school pupils would be magnificent and another thought it would be interesting to see what could be done at a lower age level, doubts were raised as to the necessary leeway in the secondary school curriculum, proper motivation of the students (previously listed as an important part in the success of these courses), and a sufficient number of capable instructors who for such courses must be practically bilingual unless a native informant (i.e., a native of the foreign country, the language of which is being taught) is also available.

Toward the end of the first morning session, the discussion became centered on the attainment of a reading knowledge of a foreign language in recent years. The reading requirement for the Ph.D. is too often a farce. Undergraduates rarely, if ever, use their foreign languages for their alleged purpose: to read in their major field of interest. This is largely true because beginning language students have been taught as though they all were going to major in the language. The emphasis on literary materials in the two-year college language course, together with the exclusive use of books replete with vocabularies and notes, has conditioned students against using their language ability, e.g., to read non-fiction prose in their major field of interest (in a book without its own vocabulary and notes!). One administrator arose to observe that the usual two-year language course meeting three times a week was a very small time unit in which to achieve all the objectives that had been mentioned during the morning (fair knowledge of grammar and syntax, ability to understand largely a lecture by a native speaker, and to converse freely and with a good accent on materials of classroom range, cultural backgrounds and geography of the foreign country, understanding of the foreign people, the vocabulary needed for research in his own major field, and a ready reading ability in a foreign magazine on the level of our *Harper's*). However, he also gave the *Foreign Language Study* a broadside for setting its sights no higher than the reading objective.[9] One speaker noted at this point that the traditional three hours a week for two college years allows very little to be done: it is entirely an unsound approach to the subject of teaching languages. The hope was expressed that our language students in college might take their 180 hours of language work at the rate of fifteen hours per week for twelve weeks (instead of, at present, at the rate of three hours per week for four semesters each of sixteen weeks' duration). When doubt was expressed as to the possibility of widespread adoption of such a scheme, another member of the panel suggested six hours a week for two semesters' duration ($6 \times 2 \times 16 = 192$ hours). That was conceded to be a minimum.[10] It was then brought out that language is actually a laboratory subject but has not been scheduled as such, as have the laboratory sciences.[11] The first morning session ended with five members stressing conversaton courses and widespread student demand for them. Two concluding statements stand out: "The Modern Foreign Language Study . . . was the Munich of the foreign language teachers of the United States"; "Reading knowledge is public enemy number one." [11a]

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The afternoon conference listed the following agenda under the title "General problems for consideration in redefinition of aims and orientation of content and approach for teaching of modern foreign languages":

What are the linguistic needs of students in elementary and intermediate courses which should govern the organization of these courses; The problem of phonemic and/or phonetic transcription—its advantages and disadvantages for general use in introductory language courses; Should training in speaking the language be offered before the student is taught to read the language; Should the study of grammar be preceded by a period of practical usage; Use of informants (i.e., native speakers) in the teaching of modern European languages; The place of recordings, radio, film, and other audio-visual aids; The use of the dictionary in foreign language courses. This session opened with a point that had been mentioned toward the end of the morning session: An intensive course is not only a matter of more time but of different directives—the aims are to provide the student with an independence in the use of the language, and also to relate that language to a number of uses, among which would be the handling of materials that are not exclusively fiction nor fabricated cultural readers, but material of some maturity. Along this line it was suggested that language majors might well be required to take course work in the geography and history departments on the country whose language they are studying.

There followed a period of discussion as to methods, aims, the order of learning, standards, etc., leaving the summary of these points for the second morning session. As to the use of phonetic or phonemic transcriptions, considerable discussion arose. It was emphasized that to the American student the word "zwei," for example, written as the German writes it, contains pitfalls. He has been conditioned by the values he had normally assigned to the letters "z" and "w" and even "ei." On the one hand, some students are apt to object rather strenuously to a transcription which is not German at all but has been compounded by some linguist (e.g., "tsvy"). On the other hand, students have been reported to be furious when forced to change from what seemed a rational spelling ("tsvy") to the conventional ("zwei") at a more advanced stage. Despite past emphasis (in the traditional method) on having the beginning student *hear* and *pronounce* the foreign word a time or two before he is introduced to it in conventional orthography, it is quite common to find third-year students making ridiculous errors in pronunciation which are based on orthography. Only a subordination of the eye can rectify this. The student's pronunciation must be perfected before he sees misleading conventional spellings. The value of the mirror (to have students see that their mouths are correctly shaped for the various sounds) was emphasized as was also the practice of having recordings which, for example, repeat the word "schön" three or four times, then pause to allow the student to pronounce the word, and finally repeat it again to fix the pronunciation in the student's mind. The students also should make their own recordings for comparison with the model and to hear their own voices.[12]

At this point a letter from one of the absent committee members was read; it concluded as follows:

> I think that a speaking knowledge of these languages [French and German] is not essential for most scholars and that acquisition of such knowledge should not be made a requirement. I think, further, that the instruction now given in departments of languages delays the student in getting a reading knowledge and in getting a speaking knowledge because training in reading and speaking are confused with one another and because both are confused with or delayed by training in composition and the study of philology and literature. I think, therefore, so far as the social scientist is concerned, a method of instruction concentrated upon reading knowledge, should be employed.

This brought the retort: ". . . since a speaking knowledge of a language is an absolute requisite to reading, the question is answered, before the war, after or any other time—if they are going to learn really to read, they will jolly well have to speak first." There was general agreement that "training in speaking [should] precede training in reading" in our modern foreign languages.

Some discussion followed as to the value of having language as a college requirement and, except for the language teachers themselves, it appears that the majority of those present felt that both mathematics and foreign languages should be mandatory upon our students so that they should at least have the opportunity to find out for themselves in the classroom whether or not they would be interested in these subjects and whether or not they had aptitude for them.[13]

While practically all of the conferees felt that grammar should be taught, the consensus of opinion was that it might better be delayed until after usage had been established.[14] Thus only the absolute essentials of grammar would be indicated during the language learning process, reserving a systematic survey of grammatical principles to be treated in the latter part of the course for purposes of reference.

* * *

The final session, Saturday morning, had the following topics remaining on the agenda from the previous day: Use of informants in the teaching of modern European languages; The place of recordings, radio, film, and other audio-visual aids in teaching a foreign language; and the use of the dictionary in foreign language courses. The theme of the Saturday session was "Implementation for courses in modern foreign languages after the war" and contained the following items: What materials are indispensable? How are they to be prepared and tested, and by whom? Studies needed to provide more scientific and realistic teaching of foreign languages. Possible activities of language associations beyond clarifying opinion as to the nature and importance of language study. What reorientation is indicated in programs of study for future teachers in secondary schools and colleges? Problems of administration presented by a revised program of study of modern foreign languages. Suggestions as to their solution. Summary: the teacher, the materials, the student.

The session started with the general statement:

> Among a number of good things that the men in linguistic science . . . have recently called our attention to again, one is the need for repetition; another is the necessity of distinguishing between the spoken and written language; and the third thing that seems . . . very important is calling the attention to the usability of persons who speak the language as their native language [i.e., "informants"], regardless of their degree of cultural attainment.

Their use was particularly recommended in conjunction with a regular teacher. The function of the informant is to serve the purposes of repetition and giving the student some idea of how the language sounds in the mouth of a native who is not concerned with grammar or with a semi-pedantic presentation, but who is to speak as naturally as possible. At North Carolina and in rather large classes, which thus obviated conversation, a native was used to speak to the classes (mostly in their second year of Spanish study) in his native tongue on the subject of the day's lesson, thus increasing their ability to understand what they *heard* in the foreign tongue. In dealing generally with the whole question of informants it was felt that the student should, if possible, have the use of several so that he might accustom himself to the pronunciation of different persons. The point was also stressed that the range of materials covered by the informant in each period should be carefully delimited by the teacher. Reference was made to Bloomfield's suggestions on the use of informants in his *Outline Guide to the Practical Study of Foreign Languages* (Baltimore, Md.: The Waverly Press, Inc., 1942).[15] The informant should serve a greater function than merely to give the students an opportunity to hear the foreign language spoken naturally: he should also serve to promote conversation and oral usage in general to the exclusion of the use of English while he is at work. Of course, this type of instruction for the intensive language course is expensive because you need the informants in addition to what you already have now in the way of staff. If you have a group of fifty students in an intensive course, you would need two or three informants to meet them daily in groups of five each for purpose of oral-aural practice. Of course, if the postwar period brings with it a great flow of students between different countries, the cost of informants would decline sharply, for these exchange students could serve in this capacity. As it is, many colleges could even now find satisfactory numbers of foreign students on the campus who would be glad to serve as informants in intensive language courses for a nominal stipend—or even as volunteers. As to how the informant might fit into our academic scheme, it was suggested that he be considered in relation to foreign languages in roughly the same capacity as the laboratory assistant is in the sciences.

Decca, in working out recordings of a language course in the form of a play, found that professional actors yielded better results than did professors. The difficulties of the microphone, alluded to editorially above, constitute one of the gravest problems in recordings for use in language instruction. For recordings of the first stages of language materials, at least, it seems axiomatic that there must be a timed space on the record so that the student may repeat every utterance immediately after he has listened to it. Quite extensive discussion followed upon the availability, or rather, lack of availability, of audio-visual aids—recordings, radio, and films—at the present time. Films and records have the advantage of repeated use; ordinary radio programs are not nearly so valuable unless the students could study the script before listening to the broadcast.

Attention was then turned to Professor Kurz' article in the January, 1943, issue of the *Modern Language Journal* in which he reported on the attitude of publishers toward non-vocabularized texts. The publishers are not willing to issue foreign language books without vocabularies unless the teachers are willing to purchase them. Abundant evidence indicates that the teachers want their language texts equipped with vocabularies, despite the great waste of printing the same words over and over again for each new text.[16] Some appeared to favor the printing of new words on the page where they occur, while others objected to the mass of new words appearing on each page of some such works. It was mentioned that our English teachers have to teach new words without the benefit of glossaries—why could not foreign language teachers do the same? Why should not every language student be expected to own and consult a general dictionary, as do our English students in their native language? It was emphasized that before a student should be certified to have acquired "a working knowledge of a foreign language," he should have had experience with non-vocabularized materials and have made use of such aids, e.g., standard dictionaries, as he would normally be expected to use if confronted with the necessity of using the language later on.

After a ten-minute recess, the conference closed with a brief series of off-the-record discussions, some of which were summarized in general terms. The following individual opinions were among those reported: So many of our competent college language teachers are being absorbed into army and navy programs, it may well be that the majority of them will find their teaching load consists almost entirely of courses in foreign languages and cultures for men and women in uniform. . . . These programs will doubtless have an effect upon the method, content, and approach of postwar college language courses. . . . We need suitable, adult non-fiction prose in our foreign language courses, especially in the field of the social studies. . . . The experience in the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies demonstrates that the time has come for the development of the Language Program into a Program of Regional Studies with the language as the central core, but surrounded by the disciplines of history, the social and natural sciences, etc. Thus, for example, the student would not be studying Turkish alone, but rather Turkey and its language. . . . For language, as well as for other disciplines within the humanities and the social sciences, the teamwork between men in different fields is of the utmost significance for future progress in the curriculum designed to give a liberal education. That scraps over-departmentalized teaching altogether, and the program of instruction which represents the best cooperative efforts of men in the languages, the arts, and the social sciences is going to be a program quite different from any offered heretofore.

## NOTES

1. The following were present: Professor Jean Boorsch (French), Yale University; Dr. J. M. Cowan (Linguistics), American Council of Learned Societies; Professor W. Rex Crawford (Sociology), University of Pennsylvania; Dean Henry Grattan Doyle (Romance Languages), George Washington University; Vice President Stephen A. Freeman (French), Middlebury College; Professor Carl J. Friedrich (Political Science), Harvard University; Professor C. R. Goedsche (German), Northwestern University; Professor Otis H. Green (Spanish), University of Pennsylvania; Dr. Robert A. Hall, Jr. (Italian), U.S. Armed Forces Institute; Professor I. L. Kandel (Education), Columbia University; Professor Lester Krakeur (French), Queens College; Professor Harry Kurz (Romance Languages), Queens College; Professor Sturgis E. Leavitt (Spanish), University of North Carolina; Professor I. A. Leonard (Spanish, History), University of Michigan; Dr. William G. Moulton (Germanic Linguistics), Yale University; Mr. John Marshall, Associate Director for the Humanities, Rockefeller Foundation; Mr. William Berrien (Romance Languages), Assistant Director for the Humanities, Rockefeller Foundation.

The present writer is deeply indebted to Mr. William Berrien, Assistant Director for the Humanities, The Rockefeller Foundation, for his courtesy and helpfulness in the difficult task of summarizing the proceedings of this conference.

2. The high-school language courses, however, were also discussed at some length.

3. This statement is of immense practical and historical interest since the *Modern Foreign Language Study* arrived at the same premise for the high-school course.

Of course, the reason this conference emphasized the work of the first two years of college language study was that in most colleges this is the total foreign language requirement and accordingly the vast majority of college language students are to be found in these two years. It certainly does not imply that this represents the optimum period for foreign language study even though it should represent an accomplishment of roughly twice the amount of that attained in two years of high school.

Participants in the conference were pretty much in agreement that goals should be in the direction of a level of competence attained (a movement, incidentally, which has been growing for some years) rather than in the direction of accepting as ideal the minimum requirement now in effect. In other words, accomplishment, and not merely time spent, should be the criterion.

4. Note that the "Foreign Language Study" concluded, as Ticknor had done one hundred years earlier, that there is "no one best method."

5. Purin and others have striven for this for years.

6. Will this be a valid objective for any, some, or all languages after the war?

7. Jespersen advocated this decades ago, but with emphasis on phonetics.

8. Note here that Professor Morgan's formula seems to apply, i.e., total accomplishment in reading can be as readily increased by acceleration and intensification as can any other goal.

9. Cf. my article of eleven years ago which tried to point to the progressive realization of the various objectives, "Modern Language Objectives," *MLJ*, XVII, 249 ff. This is quite in line with the Coleman report which is here attacked. Furthermore, it must be remembered that Coleman was dealing with the two-year high-school course—the college course would naturally be expected to cover in its first year substantially what is covered in two years of high school.

10. The University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, concentrated its language thus years ago, and the University of Washington in 1937 taught elementary courses ten hours a week over a period of one quarter. In fact, this has been traditional in summer schools.

11. It may be of historical value to note that Beginning German was so listed in the Summer Quarter announcement of the University of Washington as early as 1942. The course had five hours of instruction and five hours of "reading laboratory" for a period of nine weeks. While the objective for that period was the (now heretical?) reading aim, the approach was oral-aural, which was certainly not banned by the Coleman report and was emphasized by a stout minority report included in it.

11a. These two statements may seem excessively strong out of their context. Perhaps we might better substitute the phrase "reading objective" for "reading knowledge" in the second statement. It seems reasonable to assume that the following sentiments were being stressed: Elementary and intermediate courses should have other goals in addition to the acquisition of a reading knowledge, and training in speaking and understanding the spoken language should precede training in reading the language in its conventional orthography.

12. It is a fact, worthy of deep reflection for language teachers, that the vast majority of human beings have no idea how their voices sound. We can scarcely expect the student to know exactly what sounds he is producing when we, as teachers, don't even realize how our speech sounds! The pain of an individual, forced to listen to a fifteen-minute recorded broadcast of his own voice, is indescribable!

13. It seems to your editor that the junior high school has been promoted as the place for "exploration and guidance" and yet, somehow, has failed to offer our students a rich curriculum for sampling. Here, if anywhere, the student should find the opportunity to take a semester of a foreign language, as a tryout course, to discover whether he actually has any language aptitude and whether he really wants more language work. And yet a recent study of the junior high schools of one state showed that the junior high schools were characterized by their utter lack of language offerings. Cf. the GERMAN QUARTERLY, XV (March, 1942), 104 ff.

14. A section of the *Modern Foreign Language Study,* it will be remembered, made the same point, and more recently a study by Mr. Eichholzer of Seattle outlines the same procedure (cf. Kaulfers, Kefauver, and Roberts, *Foreign Languages and Cultures in American Education* [New York: McGraw-Hill, 1942], 180 ff.).

15. This pamphlet of Bloomfield's is practically required reading for every modern language teacher. It was referred to in an Editorial Letter in the GERMAN QUARTERLY in the January, 1944, issue.

16. It is interesting to note that the original motion to have an elementary AATG word list prepared was for the purpose of providing a body of words which publishers would be expected to omit from all their German texts. It was Professor Busse, as I recall, who emphasized this point at the 1932 convention of the AATG at Yale University.

# AFTER THE WAR: A BLUEPRINT FOR ACTION

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[From *GQ,* XVII, 4, Part 2, Nov. 1944, 241–243.]

The following propositions are taken as the foundation for the details of the blueprint. They seem to be justified by the course of recent events and the expressed opinions of responsible and influential persons.

a) Modern foreign languages will hold an increased amount of public attention.
b) Foreign relations (military, political, commercial, scientific) will be stressed and cultivated.
c) Speaking knowledge of foreign languages will be generally recognized as important.

*A) Improve and Promote Public Relations.*

1. *Verbal Action.*
    a) Collect and/or secure significant utterances in favor of foreign language study by prominent citizens other than language teachers.

b) Prepare carefully worded statements to present to school boards, principals, superintendents, and other official persons, also to PTA chapters, the educational foundations, and all other bodies concerned with public education.

2. *Corporate Action.* Organize to form a "pressure group." The need for a central bureau devoted to the interest of foreign language study was never so great and urgent as at present. Such a bureau, with voting strength behind it, could initiate moves toward the following objectives:

a) Competent teachers (no blanket certificates), preferably giving full time to language. Oral proficiency to be included in teacher certification.

*Note:* The requirement of an active command of the foreign language imposes uncommon demands on the language teacher.

b) Time enough to do a good job. This implies permission to conduct third and fourth year classes despite reduced enrollment.

*Note:* Two years is not enough, and no other western nation acts as if it were. The practice of scheduling language classes of different levels in one period (e.g., German 1 and 2) is to be specifically condemned.

c) Encouragement of teachers' study abroad. E.g.:
Leave of absence without penalty.
Promotion or salary increase as incentive or reward.
Loans to teachers from school funds.
Facilitation of exchange teaching.

d) Money for foreign language books, periodicals, pictures, and gramophone records in the school library; for *realia* in the language classroom or elsewhere.

e) Local and state prizes for language achievement.

f) Organized listening to foreign language broadcasts under school auspices.

*B) Strengthen and Broaden Foreign Language Teaching.*

1. *Language* is our objective. Culture is desirable, but it is accessible without the language or through the language. In no case is it a substitute for language.
2. Language learning requires solid foundations. Mere talking will not do (the success of the "intensive" courses does not invalidate this); mere rapid reading will also not do. Both fluent speech and reading result from systematic study done effectively.

3. *Grammar* is indispensable to language mastery. Grammar gives the rules of the language game, without which no one can play it. "Functional grammar" is not an evasion of grammar instruction: on the contrary, it emphasizes the practicality of grammar as a guide to correct and appropriate action.
4. Oral and aural fluency is the new—or renewed—requirement. To produce this, school boards must provide (a) competent teachers, (b) adequate time.

   *Note:* Many High School graduates have an imperfect grasp of their mother tongue; can the teacher of foreign language work miracles?

5. Byways of language teaching should be reopened and traveled, not to create interest, but to increase it. Such are:
   a) Inside the classroom:
      Competitions, spell downs, singing, dialogs, commemorations of great foreigners.
   b) Outside the classroom:
      The language club; the foreign exhibit or fair; foreign songs, games, plays, skits, programs; pupil correspondence.
6. Recognition of individual differences, encouragement of the abler pupils to go their own pace, especially in the matter of extensive reading.

# A PROGRAM FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE UNITED STATES

Henry Grattan Doyle
*The George Washington University*

[From *MLJ*, XXV, 7, April 1941, 531–534.]

> ". . . It is a paradox more puzzling than any other so far, that as long as the United States was really isolated, with a minimum of international trade, no cables, no telephones, no radio, no steamships, no airplanes, every well-educated man was trained in the foreign languages. Now, with twenty million daily radio listeners, with ten million more in daily contact with foreign languages, with all the modes of contact just mentioned, schoolmen insist that foreign languages are not important. They are taught grudgingly, therefore poorly, and then it is declared that the results do not justify them. In a day of 'motivation' the educators provide none, and say it is the fault of someone else. The cold fact, stripped of all wishful

thinking, is that the 'common man' has more direct contact with foreign languages today than ever before in history. If education does not see that, it is a blind spot." —Henry M. Wriston, President of Brown University.

"Our educators must begin to teach Spanish in the grade schools, as a national second language. . . . Of what use is a program to bring the Americas closer together if we cannot understand each other? The sign language will not help."—James I. Miller, Vice president of the United Press Associations, for twenty-five years a foreign correspondent, in an address before the Washington Board of Trade, December, 1940.

World events have supplied the motivation for a really effective program to correct American education's past mistakes with respect to the teaching and study of foreign languages, and to bring about results comparable to those attained in other countries. The following program is proposed:

### I. *Cultivation of Attitudes*

Americans generally must be made to realize that "the oceans have shrunk," that the United States is no longer isolated, physically, spiritually, or intellectually. To attempt to maintain an isolationist point of view is unrealistic, impractical, "burying one's head in the sand." For national defense in the immediate present and for broad, humanitarian world understanding in the more hopeful future, knowledge of foreign languages is essential. Public men, business men, representatives of labor, leaders in American educational and intellectual life, are invited to cooperate in developing an awakened and more enlightened public opinion regarding the importance of knowledge of foreign languages here and of English in foreign countries. The public, and especially educational boards and administrators, should realize that because of their practical and cultural values in daily living, in literature, science, scholarship, the fine arts, and international economic and political relations, foreign languages ought to be an essential part of any realistic program of education for living in the present-day world.

Even for those who may subsequently have little opportunity for "practical" use of a foreign language, or whose foreign language experience may be so limited as to make attainment of any fluency in speaking doubtful, there are important residual or "surrender" values of foreign language study. Among these are: better social understanding through acquaintance with foreign civilizations and foreign ways of thought and expression; increased international good will and tolerance; higher and more analytical and objective appreciation of our own language and culture resulting from study of others; growth in intellectual power through rethinking one's experience in other terms; improved command of English through better understanding of the use and meaning of words and constructions resulting from comparison with other forms of expression; development of new and wider interests which may contribute to the more profitable use of leisure time; and the like.

The ideal, however, should be not merely residual or "surrender" values, but actual mastery of a foreign language, not only for reading and understanding but for speaking and writing as well. To attain these objectives, the current inadequate course (usually only two years) must be replaced by a program of instruction seriously conceived and geared to the achievement desired. The following immediate improvements in conditions affecting the teaching and study of modern foreign languages are urgently needed:

## II. *Three Reforms in the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages*

### 1. *Curriculum.*

(a) A minimum of six years of foreign language instruction, beginning at least as early as the first year of junior high school (grade VII) and continuing through the senior high school (grade XII) should be provided, available to all students capable of doing the work.

(b) Students should be encouraged, or even required, to make substantial progress in one language before beginning another.

(c) Local conditions (geographical, historical, cultural, commercial) should be a factor in determining the precise offerings. Communities having foreign-language groups of some size should provide instruction in the languages concerned, in order that the cultural contribution of the various countries may be preserved and utilized for the building of a richer cultural life here. Care should be taken, however, not to impair the hold of English upon American children; children of foreign-born parents should think of English as their mother tongue, the language of their ancestors as a second language. For this reason the language of instruction (except in foreign language classes) should undoubtedly always be English.

French, German, and Spanish, the languages usually offered, should be supplemented wherever possible by Italian, Portuguese, the Scandinavian languages, Polish, Russian, and the like.

(d) "Short" courses, frankly limited in scope and aims (i.e., rapid acquisition of elementary reading ability, pronunciation, simple oral facility and the like) should immediately be made available, particularly for special groups, defense agency groups, and adult education classes.

### 2. *Objectives.*

Speaking and writing ability in the foreign language should be emphasized, as well as reading and understanding. This will be possible with a long-range, six-year minimum program. Under present conditions, the reading objective has necessarily had to be stressed, because it has been possible to achieve measurable results by concentrating on this skill in the two years usually available. With adequate time to develop all the language skills—oral, aural, reading, speaking, writing—no one objective will need to be stressed at the expense of the others. All will be coordinated, interwoven, harmonized, developed side by side, thus strengthening and reinforcing each other and rounding out the whole program in a logical and coherent manner.

3. *The Preparation of Teachers.*

(a) Specialists alone should be entrusted with foreign language teaching. The practice of assigning teachers of other subjects to teach a modern foreign language—often merely because they have free periods in their schedules and have been "exposed" to the language or have traveled in the country concerned—should be eliminated. Only the teaching genius can do a satisfactory job in a foreign language combined with another, particularly an unrelated, field.

(b) A background in *method,* principles of education, and the like, is not sufficient. The foreign language teacher must first of all have a mastery of the *content* of his entire field—not only the language, but the literature, history, civilization, national and racial psychology, life and customs, and the like.

(c) A speaking mastery of the language taught should be required of all American teachers of a foreign language. Conversely, the foreign-born or "native" teacher should be required to have not only a mastery —both "practical" and scientific—of his own language and of its literature and culture, but sufficient fluency in English, sufficient acquaintance with American "ways," and sufficient background in our national psychology and culture to relieve him of the usual handicaps resulting from lack of these important factors in the teacher's equipment.

(d) Residence and study in the country or countries whose languages they intend to teach should be required of all prospective foreign language teachers. This should be made possible by increased opportunities for interchange of students and teachers—not only professors in universities, but secondary-school teachers as well—between the United States and foreign countries. Such a program will require much larger sums than are now available for scholarships, fellowships, and the like. Allowances for travel and living expenses should supplement scholarships covering merely tuition and other fixed fees. Sabbatical leaves at full pay for active teachers are another desideratum.

The program proposed above may seem to some too idealistic. It *is* idealistic, but only in the sense that it is so far in advance of current educational practice. Objectively considered, with present-day world conditions in mind, it is intensely practical and realistic. It recognizes the changes that have come about in the world and that—whether we like it or not—affect America. It is an effort to shape our educational practice to the needs of the here and now. It is presented without misgivings, because it arises from a sense of duty to my profession and to my country.

# APPENDIX A : DESCRIPTIONS OF EXAMINATIONS AND SAMPLE QUESTIONS

## NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS—DESCRIPTION AND SAMPLE QUESTIONS

**[From *Practice Booklet for Examinees,* National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education. Copyright, 1946, by the Cooperative Test Service. Reprinted by permission of David G. Ryans, Associate Director.]**

### GENERAL INFORMATION

This booklet contains a practice test and a description of the materials to be included in the examinations sponsored by the National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education. It is the purpose of this brief exercise to acquaint the candidates with the types of materials which will be included in the examinations, and with the procedures involved in taking the tests and recording the answers. The practice answer sheet is similar to those which will be used at the regular examinations.

It is imperative that the candidate complete the practice exercise and fill out the practice answer sheet before coming to the examination.

Sample copies of the National Teacher Examinations are not issued. This practice material indicates the general scope of each test and includes representative items from each test.

### GENERAL NATURE OF THE EXAMINATIONS

The National Teacher Examinations cover the following areas: understanding and use of the English language; reasoning ability; general cultural information, including knowledge of contemporary affairs; understanding of professional educational points of view, goals, and methods; and mastery of subject matter to be taught. The wide scope of the examinations provides the individual with an opportunity to demonstrate the particular pattern of his abilities and knowledge.

The examinations offered are limited to intellectual, academic, and cultural materials. *Other equally important factors that contribute to teaching fitness, such as personal and social characteristics, training, experience, and class-room effectiveness will be judged independently through the interview and other means by the local authority to whom a candidate applies.*

The National Teacher Examinations consist of a battery of *common examinations* and of *optional examinations* covering the specific subject-matter fields which a candidate proposes to teach.

The *Common Examinations* are recommended for all candidates on the theory that admission to the profession in any capacity should be restricted to those having a certain minimum of intelligence, culture, and professional preparation. The examinations included are as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Non-verbal Reasoning | 35 minutes |
| Verbal Comprehension | 30 minutes |
| English Expression | 30 minutes |
| General Culture | 125 minutes |
| History, Literature, and Fine Arts<br>Science and Mathematics<br>Contemporary Affairs | |
| Professional Information | 120 minutes |
| Education and Social Policy<br>Child Development and Educational Psychology<br>Guidance, and Individual and Group Analysis<br>General Principles and Methods of Teaching | |

The *Optional Examinations* are designed to show mastery of the subject matter to be taught. It is recommended that candidates for elementary school positions take number 1, and candidates for high school positions one or two others.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Education in the Elementary School | 100 minutes |
| 2 | English Language and Literature | 100 minutes |
| 3 | Social Studies | 100 minutes |
| 4 | Mathematics | 100 minutes |
| 5 | Biological Sciences | 100 minutes |
| 6 | Physical Sciences | 100 minutes |
| 7 | French | 100 minutes |
| 8 | German | 100 minutes |
| 9 | Spanish | 100 minutes |
| 10 | Latin | 100 minutes |

Each test in the battery of National Teacher Examinations has been carefully constructed by subject-matter experts and test technicians to assure maximum reliability and validity. Much consideration has been given to the choice of material appropriate for these examinations. In the development of outlines for the tests, extensive analyses have been made of syllabi, textbooks, and published researches, and the curricula followed by many schools have been reviewed. Advice has also been obtained from educators in teacher-training institutions and from practicing teachers, supervisors, and administrators. The test items have been prepared with a view to measuring not only knowledge of the facts involved but also the prospective teacher's ability to apply that knowledge in the school situation. The items have been tested through preliminary administration, and their difficulty and discrimination value have been determined. Only those items which proved satisfactory in these respects have been included in the examination battery.

The systematic planning of procedure in the sampling of the fields involved and in the testing and selecting of the items has made possible tests which provide trustworthy quantitative descriptions of many aspects of each individual's knowledge and abilities.

All examinations are of the "objective" type. They consist of short-answer items involving multiple-choice responses.

The Common Examination battery of the National Teacher Examinations is administered in one day. The Optional Examinations (examinations covering the subject matter to be taught) are administered on a second day.

* * * * *

## FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The special subject tests in Spanish, French, German, and Latin will include material testing ability to read the language, extent of vocabulary, knowledge of grammar and idiom, familiarity with the literature and with the history and civilization of the countries concerned, and acquaintance with general information useful in teaching the language.

### FRENCH

*Directions:* You are to think of the French word that would be used to translate the underlined English word. Indicate on the answer sheet the *number* of the choice giving the *first letter* of the correct French word.

1. A long bridge spanned the river.

    1–1 A
    1–2 C
    1–3 N
    1–4 P
    1–5 R

*Directions:* In each item below, select the word or phrase which *best* completes the statement, and indicate the *number* of your choice on the answer sheet.

2. Les "Quarante Immortels" sont

    2–1 les membres du Sénat.
    2–2 les membres du Conseil des Ministres sous Louis XIV.
    2–3 les membres du Collège de France.
    2–4 les membres de l'Académie Française.
    2–5 les recteurs des universités françaises.

3. The term "explication de textes" refers to
   - 3–1 an interlinear translation of a text.
   - 3–2 the identification of the verbs found in a certain passage.
   - 3–3 a detailed analysis of the linguistic and literary features of a passage.
   - 3–4 a student's composition, based on a model.
   - 3–5 the parsing of each word in a text.

*Directions:* Choose the English word that is most nearly equivalent in meaning to the French word, and indicate the ***number*** of your choice on the answer sheet.

4. ***méridional***
   - 4–1 clockwise
   - 4–2 distant
   - 4–3 southern
   - 4–4 noon
   - 4–5 marine

*Directions:* Decide which one of the numbered choices will ***best*** complete the French sentence when inserted in the blank (——); then indicate on the answer sheet the ***number*** of the correct choice.

5. Cette robe-ci me plaît, mais je préfère (——) que vous portiez hier.
   - 5–1 l'une
   - 5–2 cette
   - 5–3 celui
   - 5–4 celle-ci
   - 5–5 celle

### GERMAN

*Directions:* In the item below, choose the English phrase which gives the ***best*** translation of the German sentence, and indicate the ***number*** of your choice on the answer sheet.

1. Adolf ist an der Reihe.
   - 1–1 It is Adolf's turn.
   - 1–2 The crowd tricks Adolf.
   - 1–3 The group asks for Adolf.
   - 1–4 The file meets Adolf.
   - 1–5 The group helps Adolf.

*Directions:* In the item below, choose the German phrase which gives the ***best*** translation of the underlined part of the English sentence, and indicate the ***number*** of your choice on the answer sheet.

2. He died a long time ago.
   - 2–1 schon längst vorüber.
   - 2–2 viele Zeit her.
   - 2–3 vor lange.
   - 2–4 vor langer Zeit.
   - 2–5 noch lange her

*Directions:* Each of the questions or incomplete statements below is followed by five possible answers. Select the *best* answer, and indicate the *number* of your choice on the answer sheet.

3. Goethes *Torquato Tasso* ist
   - 3–1 ein Roman.
   - 3–2 eine Novelle.
   - 3–3 ein Gedicht.
   - 3–4 eine Kritik.
   - 3–5 ein Drama.

4. Of the following, the most important influence of the Modern Language Study was in promoting
   - 4–1 increased enrollments in foreign language classes.
   - 4–2 study abroad for foreign language teachers.
   - 4–3 the application of scientific methods to problems of modern language teaching.
   - 4–4 the formation of associations of teachers.
   - 4–5 extensive research in the literature of foreign nations.

*Directions:* In the item below choose the English word that is most nearly equivalent in meaning to the German word, and indicate the *number* of your choice on the answer sheet.

5. *redlich*
   - 5–1 reckless
   - 5–2 ready
   - 5–3 frequent
   - 5–4 honest
   - 5–5 talkative

### SPANISH

*Directions:* In the item below choose the English word that is most nearly equivalent in meaning to the Spanish word, and indicate the *number* of your choice on the answer sheet.

1. *fastidiar*
   - 1–1 to fast
   - 1–2 to annoy
   - 1–3 to fasten
   - 1–4 to celebrate
   - 1–5 to weaken

*Directions:* In each of the following items, select the *best* answer, and indicate the *number* of your choice on the answer sheet.

2. La administración colonial se ejecutó a través
   - 2–1 de las Cortes.
   - 2–2 de los Fueros de Castilla.
   - 2–3 del Consejo de Indias.
   - 2–4 de la burocracia del Escorial.
   - 2–5 del virrey de Nueva España.

3. Which one of the following sentences will be correct if *para* is inserted in the blank?
   - 3–1 ¿Hay una carta (——) mí?
   - 3–2 Viaja (——) España.
   - 3–3 Andaba (——) la calle.
   - 3–4 Ruega a Dios (——) mí.
   - 3–5 Me dió una pluma (——) el lápiz.

4. Which one of the following words should have a written accent?
   - 4–1 caracteres
   - 4–2 alcanzan
   - 4–3 examenes
   - 4–4 siete
   - 4–5 encajan

5. *Fortunata y Jacinta* de Galdós presenta una descripción de
   - 5–1 Madrid.
   - 5–2 Cádiz.
   - 5–3 Sevilla.
   - 5–4 Cataluña.
   - 5–5 Italia.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE AURAL COMPREHENSION AND ORAL PRODUCTION TESTS

### Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language

[Courtesy of Harold B. Dunkel, Associate Director.]

The Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, an educational research project, is under way at the University of Chicago under the direction of Professor Ralph W. Tyler. As part of its program, the Investigation has developed a series of tests for the measurement of aural and oral skills in French, German, Russian and Spanish. There follows here a brief description of these tests.

AURAL COMPREHENSION.—The testing material, spoken by carefully selected native speakers, is recorded on phonograph records. As the student listens to the record, he has before him a test-booklet and a specially designed answer-sheet for machine-scoring. Each test consists of three parts, requires a maximum of fifty minutes, and may be given to any number of students at a time.

*Lower Level.*—The lower level tests are designed for students with a running total of 90–130 class hours. Part One consists of twenty-five completion items, each with a triple-choice response (worded in English); for example, the voice says: "*Se cultivan las flores en un*——," and the student answers by choosing among the expressions *garden, box-car, coal-mine,* printed in the test-booklet.—Part Two consists of twenty-five definition items, each with a triple-choice response; for example, the voice says: "*Ein Mann, der Fleisch verkauft,*" and the student chooses his answer from among *baker, butcher, doctor.*—Part Three is made up of six short anecdotes, with from five to nine triple-choice responses, worded in English, on the content of each.

The make-up of the French Lower Level test differs from that of the other languages in that the Completion Series is replaced by thirty Phonetic Accuracy items, each with a quadruple-choice response; for example, the voice says "*parlent*" and the student chooses his answer among the forms *parlons, parlâmes, parlent, parlant,* appearing in the test-booklet.

*Upper Level.*—The upper level tests are intended for students having a running total of more than 150 class hours. Part One consists of twenty-five definitions; Part Two is composed of six anecdotes with from six to nine triple-choice responses on each; Part Three consists of a five-minute dialogue between a man and a woman speaker, with fifteen triple-choice responses on its content.

ORAL PRODUCTION.—Individual tests of oral production are now available for general use. They are on two levels, and feature (1) oral response to pictorial stimuli, (2) controlled conversation with a native speaker through the use of phonograph records, (3) brief, free oral composition on set themes.

The Investigation is interested in establishing norms for these various tests. It will therefore welcome their use in any language-course, whether of an experimental character or not, in either secondary school or college, by any teacher who is interested to test the oral-aural attainments of his students. There is no charge for these tests; the Investigation will pay all expenses connected with shipping the materials, and will itself do all scoring and statistical analysis, with the understanding that it may utilize the results in its establishment of norms.

Orders for testing materials should be placed, at least two weeks in advance of the testing date, with the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago 37, Illinois.

# DESCRIPTION OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION GERMAN READING SCALE A, DIVISION 2

M. J. VAN WAGENEN AND SOPHIA HUBMAN PATTERSON

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## 1. GIVING THE TEST

Have each student write his name, grade, etc., in the spaces provided therefor on the front page of the test booklet. Then read aloud the following directions:

"On the bottom of the front page of your test booklet, you will find a sample (Paragraph A) of the paragraphs which appear in this booklet. Read this paragraph carefully. Then read the statements below it and put a check mark (√) on the dotted line in front of each statement which contains an idea that is in the paragraph or that can be derived from it. The first and fourth statements are already checked as they should be. The paragraph and statements may be re-read as often as it is necessary.

### SAMPLE PARAGRAPH

Paragraph A. Mein Onkel Johann ist ein groszer, starker Mann. Er ist ein Fischer und wohnt an einem groszen See. Er hat ein gutes Boot. Sein Boot ist eines der gröszten im Lande. Er hat den See sehr gern und geht fast jeden Tag hinaus auf das Wasser um zu fischen. Ich gehe nicht gern auf den See, denn ich werde oft seekrank.

### STATEMENTS

....√.... 1. Mein Onkel ist ein starker Mann.
.......... 2. Mein Onkel Johann wohnt in Berlin.
.......... 3. Er hat ein schönes rotes Boot.
....√.... 4. Er geht gern fischen.
.......... 5. Ich gehe oft mit ihm.

"The first statement is checked because it is definitely stated in the paragraph that 'Mein Onkel ist ein starker Mann.' (My uncle is a strong man.)

"The second statement is left unchecked because there is nothing in the paragraph that suggests that the writer's uncle lives in Berlin. In fact, since he lives near a large lake, he could not be living in Berlin.

"The third statement is also left unchecked because nothing is said in the paragraph about the color of the boat, nor is any clue given as to its color.

"The fourth statement is checked because it may be inferred from the statement that he is a fisher, that he likes the lake and is almost daily upon it (Er hat den See sehr gern und geht fast jeden Tag hinaus auf das Wasser um zu fischen.), and that he also likes fishing.

"The last statement, 'Ich gehe oft mit ihm', is not directly contradicted in the paragraph, but the statement that, "Ich gehe nicht gern auf den See, denn ich werde oft seekrank', (I do not like to go on the lake, for I frequently become seasick.) leads us to infer that the writer does not often go with his uncle. Hence the last statement is left unchecked.

"On the following pages there are other paragraphs, each with statements below it. Read each paragraph and check the statements as in the case of paragraph A. Begin with the first paragraph and take each one in order until you have completed the test. Remember, check each statement which contains an idea that is in the paragraph or that can be derived from it."

Instruct the students that when they finish the test, they should close the test booklet, place it to one side, and take up some other work.

This is not a speed test, but at the end of the class period (fifty minutes) all test booklets should be collected.

# DESCRIPTION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGNOSIS TEST

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[Published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Copyright 1930, by Percival M. Symonds. Reprinted by permission.]

## Purpose of the Test

This test is designed to predict the success that a pupil will have in learning a foreign language. It is intended to be used before a pupil has studied any foreign language. As a prognosis test it should find a prominent place in the guidance program of the school and may also be used for sectioning, placement, etc. Many pupils start the study of a foreign language only to find that they learn slowly and with difficulty and are unable to make normal progress. The elimination of pupils studying foreign languages in our schools is appalling. The following table indicates the situation.[1]

## TABLE I

Percentages of Total Number of Students of French, German, Spanish, and Latin in the Public Secondary Schools Distributed as They Occurred in the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Years of Study in the Spring of 1925.

### NATIONAL SUMMARY

| Language | Years of Study | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| French | 55.5 | 32.0 | 11.0 | 1.5 |
| German | 60.9 | 31.3 | 7.2 | 0.6 |
| Spanish | 59.6 | 32.1 | 7.1 | 1.2 |
| Latin | 54.4 | 32.2 | 9.2 | 4.2 |

This table shows that only about 40 to 50 per cent of pupils starting a foreign language carry their work into a second year. Probably a large part of this elimination is due to inability to handle the subject. This "trial year" is costly to the public and discouraging to the pupil. How much better it would be for public, teachers, parents, and pupils alike if before embarking on the study of a foreign language all pupils could be informed of their chances of success.

The present test is an instrument which makes just such a prediction with a high degree of accuracy. Its use will take away much of the guesswork from guidance. It offers a method of eliminating the waste and discouragement that follow a year of ineffective study, and enables the pupil to direct his energies into studies that will be of profit to him.

The test may be used, in addition, for the purpose of grouping pupils who are taking a language, into sections that may be expected to make rapid, average and slow progress.

### GRADE LEVEL OF THE TEST

The Foreign Language Prognosis Test has been designed for use with pupils in the eighth or ninth grade before the study of any foreign language. After pupils have had a semester or more of study of a foreign language an achievement test in the language itself is probably the best prediction that can be made of subsequent success in the language. Success in one language may also be used as a measure of ability to succeed in another language. For instance, one can make a good prediction of success in French from previous achievement in Latin. Sectioning can also best be accomplished, after study of the language has started, on the basis of achievement in the language itself. However, it has been demonstrated that the Foreign Language Prognosis Test is equally effective as an instrument of prediction even with pupils who have previously studied some foreign language.

Although much of the material included in the Foreign Language Prognosis Test is strange and perhaps difficult for both teacher and pupil, it has already been tried out and adjusted so that it fits the abilities of eighth or ninth grade children just beginning their study of French, German, Spanish, Italian, or Latin. The test should not be used with children in grades below the eighth.

### TIME OF YEAR FOR GIVING THE TEST

The test should be given at the opening of the school year. The test papers should be scored without delay, and the results made immediately available so that the test may serve most effectively its purpose for guidance.

### STRUCTURE OF THE TEST

The test comes in two forms, A and B. These two forms are not duplicate in the usual sense, but rather they are supplementary. It was originally planned to combine in one booklet all the tests comprising these two forms; but for purposes of economy it was decided to separate the material into two booklets. Form A or Form B may be used alone with equally satisfactory results. But it is strongly urged that both forms be used together for the best results.

Table II gives some facts concerning the number of items in each test and the time allowance.

TABLE II

Time in Minutes and Total Number of Items for Each Test.

| Test A | Name | Time in Minutes | No. of Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | English Inflection | 10 | 30 |
| 2 | Word Translation—English to Esperanto | 10 | 30 |
| 3 | Sentence Translation—Esperanto to English | 12 | 25 |
| 4 | Related Words | 12 | 25 |
| | Total | 44 | 110 |

| Test B | Name | Time in Minutes | No. of Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Word Translation—Esperanto to English | 10 | 30 |
| 2 | Artificial Language | 12 | 74 |
| 3 | Sentence Translation—English to Esperanto | 12 | 25 |
| 4 | Formation of Parts of Speech in English | 10 | 50 |
| | Total | 44 | 179 |

The total working time for each form is 44 minutes. At least one hour should be allowed for giving each form, as time is consumed in reading the directions and in distributing and collecting materials.

## NOTE

1. Table N in *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States*. The Macmillan Company, 1928.

# AMERICAN COUNCIL ALPHA FRENCH TEST—AURAL COMPREHENSION

AGNES L. ROGERS AND FRANCES M. CLARKE

[Published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. C.
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## INTRODUCTION

The American Council Alpha French Test—Aural Comprehension—was prepared originally by Dr. Agnes L. Rogers with the assistance of a committee of teachers of French from the faculties of private schools in the area of Philadelphia and Bryn Mawr College during the year 1926–1927. In 1928 the test was extended and improved on the basis of previous experimentation in order to measure the achievement of the highest grades of attainment in French.

The present form has been standardized by Dr. Frances M. Clarke through the courtesy and coöperation of Dr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Language Studies in the New York City High Schools, and of the chairmen and teachers of French in six different high schools of the city of New York.

The test is in two forms, designated as Form A and Form B, and both forms were given to more than thirteen hundred pupils of the six high schools participating. The two forms are equivalent to each other in difficulty.

## DESCRIPTION AND DERIVATION OF THE TEST

The test is designed as an instrument to measure ability to understand spoken French. It makes possible more accurate comparison of attainment between individuals and groups under various conditions. It is further designed as a means of classification and placement, with a view to securing homogeneity in classes. It may be used as an instrument of analysis for the investigation of type difficulties and of confusion of sounds in the pronunciation of the French language, and as a measure in more specific terms of attainment in one of the immediate objectives of the study of French.

Each form of the tests consists of eighty questions. These contain approximately two hundred words drawn from the lists by Henmon and by Vander Beke: Henmon, V. A. C., *A French Word Book Based on a Count of 400,000 Running Words*. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 3, Madison, University of Wisconsin, 1924, 84 p; Vander Beke, G. E., *French Word Book*. Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. 15, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1929, 188 p. In the absence of word counts of spoken French, it seemed the best procedure to use these sources as our guide.

As the aim of the test is to measure understanding of *spoken* French, the responses are presented in English. Each pupil is given an answer paper which has five possible response words as answer to each question that the examiner reads to the class. The student shows his comprehension of the meaning of the question by underlining the one English word which best answers that question. The five-response technique was adopted because of its objectivity, reliability, and ease of scoring. The results make as clear as possible the nature of the student's limitations. The answers are in English because a pupil might understand the question and yet be ignorant of the French word required for the answer.

The elimination of all other abilities than those involved in the comprehension of spoken French is of course impossible. The influence of general intelligence cannot be eliminated, and, obviously, general information is required in order to answer such questions as are included in the test. The extent of the influence of such factors is, however, rendered negligible by such a selection of content that the maximum degree of general intelligence and of information required is below that possessed by the poorest pupil to be examined. The most common words of the French language were used in constructing the questions of the test, and the length of the questions was determined by comparison with the Standard Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale which gives standards for repeating syllables in the mother tongue correctly. It was decided to restrict the sentences to an attention span well within the standard for the ages participating; thus no question has more than eleven words or twenty syllables. By choosing a sentence length well within the attention span of a child of ten, in the mother tongue, it is probable that the danger of measuring *attention* rather than *comprehension of spoken French* is avoided.

*The test requires thirty-five minutes, including the time needed for filling the blanks on the first page, for reading the directions, and for administration.*

# C.E.E.B. DESCRIPTION OF EXAMINATIONS IN THE MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

## *French, German, Spanish* [1]

[From *Description of Examination Subjects* (Edition of December, 1941). College Entrance Examination Board, Princeton, New Jersey (pp. 29–32). Reprinted by permission of Henry Chauncey, Director.]

***The following description of the examinations in the modern languages—French, German, Spanish—was prepared by a commission appointed by the College Entrance Examination Board in October 1930. The report of the Commission was adopted by the Board in April 1932.***

### *INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT*

While the immediate purpose of foreign language study, as suggested by the details given on the following pages, is to develop in various ways linguistic skill, it should not be forgotten that an important ultimate aim for all pupils is to enable them to understand foreign civilizations. To this end it is recommended that attention be paid increasingly at the different levels, First and Second Year, Third Year, and Fourth Year, to the geography, history, institutions, and customs of the countries in question and, in the Fourth Year particularly, that emphasis be placed on literary values.

The order of the following items does not imply that the Board recommends any particular sequence in instruction.

### *FIRST AND SECOND YEAR*

#### *Two Units*

##### THE WORK TO BE DONE

1. Development of the ability to read with understanding simple prose with a basic recognition vocabulary of approximately 2000 to 3000 words in their normal uses and in idiomatic combinations.[2]
2. Development of the ability to pronounce intelligibly.
3. Development of the ability to understand and use the language orally within the limits of the pupil's classroom experience.
4. Development of the ability to write the language within the limits of the pupil's active vocabulary.

##### SUGGESTED MEANS OF PREPARATION

1. Intensive study of brief reading assignments in order to understand each word and expression, to organize grammatical knowledge, and to build up an active vocabulary.

2. Practice in reading silently for comprehension in order to develop the ability to understand paragraphs and longer passages without translation into English.
3. Careful drill in pronunciation; practice in reading the foreign text aloud.
4. Practice in hearing the foreign language read and spoken by the teacher in order to improve the pronunciation of the pupils and to develop aural understanding.
5. Practice in writing from dictation simple sentences and paragraphs based upon material familiar to the pupil.
6. Oral and written exercises in the foreign language based upon material familiar to the pupil.
7. Orderly study of the essentials of grammar viewed primarily from the functional standpoint.
8. Memorizing of simple verse and prose selections.

## *THIRD YEAR*

### *One Unit*

### THE WORK TO BE DONE

1. Further development of speed and range of ability to read the foreign language with comprehension.
2. Further development of the power to use the foreign language orally.
3. Increased ability to use the language in writing with better control of vocabulary and of current grammatical and idiomatic usage.

### SUGGESTED MEANS OF PREPARATION

1. Further practice in reading intensively brief portions of texts.
2. Reading for comprehension of larger amounts of material that is not too difficult in vocabulary and in thought content.
3. Further practice in reading the foreign text aloud and in hearing the language spoken and read aloud by the teacher.
4. Reproduction orally and in writing of portions of the texts read.
5. Practice by the pupil in expressing orally and in writing his own ideas and experiences.
6. Further study of grammar, primarily functional.

## *FOURTH YEAR*

### *One Unit*

### THE WORK TO BE DONE

1. Development of ability to read ordinary prose at a rate approximately that with which the pupil reads English of similar character.

2. Development of ability to read prose and verse of literary value with increased attention to the cultural background.
3. Development of ability to write in the foreign language on topics connected with the pupil's personal experience.
4. Further development of ability to express orally ideas in the foreign language.

### SUGGESTED MEANS OF PREPARATION

Further development of the methods already indicated; stress upon extensive collateral reading with reports; intensive analysis of texts; free composition. As far as possible the work should be conducted in the foreign language.

The examinations should enable universities, colleges, and scientific schools to give credit to applicants for admission in one or more of the examination subjects enumerated in the following list:

| | |
|---|---|
| *French 2.* | *Two-Year French* |
| *French 3.* | *Three-Year French* |
| *French 4.* | *Four-Year French* |
| *German 2.* | *Two-Year German* |
| *German 3.* | *Three-Year German* |
| *German 4.* | *Four-Year German* |
| *Spanish 2.* | *Two-Year Spanish* |
| *Spanish 3.* | *Three-Year Spanish* |
| *Spanish 4.* | *Four-Year Spanish* |

Questions may be set on such subjects as the following: vocabulary; idioms; functional grammar; a series of graded passages for testing comprehension; free composition; translation from the foreign language into English; translation from English into the foreign language.

Some of the questions may be arranged for candidates at the Two-Year, Three-Year, and Four-Year levels respectively.

Other questions, as for example those on vocabulary, idioms, functional grammar, passages for comprehension, may be set for all candidates without specific reference to the number of years the language has been studied. These items would be graded in difficulty, and each candidate would be expected to answer as many questions as possible.

## NOTES

1. The subject matter covered in the present examinations is no longer specified in the detail that it was in 1941 when the longer essay examinations were offered.

2. Cf. such publications as G. E. Vander Beke, *French Word Book*; F. D. Cheydleur, *French Idiom List*; M. A. Buchanan, *A Graded Spanish Word Book*; H. Keniston, *Spanish Idiom List* (Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages). All of these books are issued by Macmillan, except the *Graded Spanish Word Book* (University of Toronto Press).

## SAMPLE QUESTIONS: COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD TESTS IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

[From *Bulletin of Information for 1946–1947,* College Entrance Examination Board, Princeton, N. J. Reprinted by permission of Henry Chauncey, Director.]

### THE ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

The questions in each of these tests lay special emphasis on facility in manipulating subject matter and on ingenuity in the application of basic principles in new situations. A score on one of these tests is not only a measure of past achievement but also a predictor of future performance with similar material in college courses.

In an attempt to make success on these tests as independent as possible of the specific courses of study, selection of textbooks, or methods of teaching used in individual schools, the broadest possible coverage of each subject-matter field is sought.

* * * * *

*Foreign Languages.* French, German, Spanish, Latin. Each test contains questions which can be answered by candidates who have studied the language for two or three years, as well as questions appropriate for candidates with four years' preparation. In interpreting the candidate's score, the college takes into consideration his level of preparation.

The questions test the student's knowledge of vocabulary, his understanding of syntax, and most important, his ability to read and comprehend passages written in the language. A primary aim in the construction of these tests is to include material that requires the practical application of principles of grammar and a discriminating knowledge of words and phrases, especially as they are affected by their context. The best preparation for the tests is a careful reading of varied texts, combined with a study of vocabulary and syntax.

* * * * *

### *French Reading Test*

### PART I

*Directions:* Five English words or phrases are given with each of the following French words or phrases. Select the ONE English word or phrase which

**is the best translation of the French, and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under its number.**

***Example:***

***travailler*** **(1) find (2) cross (3) travel (4) benefit (5) work**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ⁞ | ⁞ | ⁞ | ⁞ | ▬ |

**1. *oeuvre* (1) glance (2) opening (3) work (4) bird (5) egg**
**2. *auparavant* (1) apparently (2) umbrella (3) before (4) screen (5) recently**
**3. *fouiller* (1) fail (2) foil (3) deceive (4) amuse (5) search**

## Part II

***Directions:*** **Five French words or phrases are given with each of the following English words or phrases. Select the ONE French word or phrase which is the best translation of the English, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.**

***Example:***

***already*** **(1) alors (2) encore (3) surtout (4) déjà (5) presque**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ⁞ | ⁞ | ⁞ | ▬ | ⁞ |

**4. *among* (1) contre (2) autour (3) dessus (4) dedans (5) parmi**
**5. *guilty* (1) capable (2) doré (3) coupable (4) tort (5) gelé**
**6. *blade* (1) blé (2) laide (3) lame (4) coupe (5) coûte**

## Part III

***Directions:*** **Each group of four words or expressions in this section contains two words or expressions which are similar in meaning. Find the two words or expressions which are similar, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding numbers on the answer page.**

***Example:***

**(1) empêcher (2) être présent à (3) assister à (4) s'évanouir**

| 1–2 | 1–3 | 1–4 | 2–3 | 2–4 | 3–4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ⁞ | ⁞ | ⁞ | ▬ | ⁞ | ⁞ |

**7. (1) parti (2) moitié (3) demi (4) partage**
**8. (1) se sauver (2) s'attendre à (3) chercher à (4) s'enfuir**
**9. (1) à quoi bon (2) d'accord (3) à savoir (4) soit**

## Part IV

***Directions:*** **The sentences in this section are incomplete. At the beginning of each one is an English word or phrase which is a translation of the correct completion of the French sentence. Five numbered French words or phrases follow each sentence. Select the ONE French expression that is the**

best translation of the English word or words and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under its number.

10. (*what*) Avec . . . l'a-t-il frappé (1) que (2) qui (3) quel (4) lequel (5) quoi
11. (*read*) Presque tous les livres qu'elle . . . l'ont intéressée. (1) lit (2) lut (3) a lus (4) a lu (5) a lues
12. (*have finished*) Je ne pense pas qu'ils . . . leur travail. (1) aient fini (2) ont fini (3) finissent (4) finissaient (5) eussent fini

## PART V

*Directions:* Read the following passage carefully for comprehension. Some words or phrases are italicized; these words are repeated at the end of the passage, followed by five English words or phrases. Select the ONE English word or phrase which is the best and most appropriate translation, considering the context in which it appears, and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under its number.

A number of incomplete statements, followed by five suggested completions, are also given after the passage. You are to select the ONE completion which is best according to the passage, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

Le père Chaufour, vétéran des guerres de la Révolution et de l'Empire, n'est plus qu'une ruine d'homme. A la place d'un de ses bras pend une *manche* repliée, la jambe gauche sort de chez le tourneur, et la droite se traîne péniblement; mais *au-dessus de* ce débris, se dresse un visage calme et jovial.

En voyant son regard énergique, en entendant sa voix ferme et bonne, on sent que l'âme est restée entière dans l'enveloppe à moitié détruite. La forteresse est un peu endommagée, comme dit le père Chaufour, mais la garnison se porte bien.

J'ai trouvé le vieux brave devant une table éclairée par une petite lampe fumeuse, sans feu, bien qu'il fasse déjà froid, et fabriquant de *grossières* boîtes de carton; il murmurait entre ses dents un refrain populaire.

—Eh, c'est vous, voisin! dit-il. Entrez donc! Je ne vous croyais pas si matinal. J'avais peur de vous réveiller en chantant fort. Asseyez-vous là, sans vous commander . . . Seulement, prenez garde au tabouret, il n'a que trois pieds; il faut que la bonne volonté tienne lieu du quatrième.

13. *manche* (1) hand (2) glove (3) sleeve (4) hook (5) cuff
14. *au-dessus de* (1) below (2) above (3) through (4) by means of (5) in spite of
15. *grossières* (1) rough (2) dozens of (3) grocery (4) berry (5) wholesale
16. Le père Chaufour (1) a perdu deux bras (2) a été aveuglé (3) a perdu deux jambes (4) est très mutilé (5) n'a jamais fait la guerre

17. Le vieux conseille à son voisin (1) de ne rien commander (2) d'approcher le tabouret (3) de réparer le tabouret (4) de s'asseoir sur le plancher (5) de faire attention en s'asseyant
18. Il croyait que son voisin (1) se lèverait tard ce jour-là (2) se lèverait tôt ce jour-là (3) chantait très fort (4) aimait la musique (5) venait commander des boîtes

## *German Reading Test*

### PART I

*Directions:* Each group of four words in this list contains two words which are similar in meaning. Find the two words which are most similar, and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under their numbers.

*Example:*

(1) anfangen (2) anfahren (3) beginnen (4) aufhören

| 1–2 | 1–3 | 1–4 | 2–3 | 2–4 | 3–4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ┆┆ | ■ | ┆┆ | ┆┆ | ┆┆ | ┆┆ |

1. (1) Laden (2) Lärm (3) Gerät (4) Geräusch
2. (1) nieder (2) niemals (3) hinab (4) herbei
3. (1) vernehmen (2) hören (3) vermehren (4) verlassen

### PART II

*Directions:* Four English words or phrases are given with each of the following German words or phrases. Select the ONE English word or phrase which is the best translation of the German, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

*Example:*

*hart* (1) hoard (2) heard (3) hard (4) bearded

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| ┆┆ | ┆┆ | ■ | ┆┆ |

4. *bereit* (1) ready (2) regretted (3) written (4) obvious
5. *retten* (1) rattle (2) speak (3) rescue (4) wrestle
6. *Spott* (1) spot (2) derision (3) small amount (4) trace

### PART III

*Directions:* Each sentence is followed by five numbered German words or phrases. Select the ONE German expression which is the best translation of the English word or words in parentheses, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

7. Sie sollten doch (*the whole day*) nicht da sitzen bleiben. (1) der ganze Tag (2) des ganzen Tages (3) dem ganzen Tag (4) dem ganzen Tage (5) den ganzen Tag

8. Das Kätzchen ist von seiner Mutter verlassen (*been*). (1) gewesen (2) sein (3) geworden (4) worden (5) werden
9. Er summte das alte Lied (*to himself*). (1) zu sich selbst (2) vor sich selbst (3) selbst (4) vor sich hin (5) sich selbst

## PART IV

*Directions:* Read the following passage carefully for comprehension, and answer the questions based upon its content. Each question consists of an incomplete statement followed by five suggested completions; you are to select ONE completion which is best according to the passage, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

Ich sah vom Fenster aus den Strom in einem silbrigen Geglitzer dahinfliessen. Auch heute war er leer von Schiffen. Fern am Festland zeichneten sich deutlich die Kirchtürme zweier Dörfer ab. Das eine, das der Mündung zunächst lag, hiess Wersum; ich war früher ein paarmal dort gewesen. Der Name des zweiten, das eine besonders breite und hochragende Kirche besass, war mir unbekannt. Da jetzt der Regen aufhörte und die Sonne das Gewölk durchbrach, trat das Ufer meiner Heimat in reizvoller Klarheit hervor. Ich nahm mein Fernglas, ging vor die Hütte und beobachtete hinüber. Als ich noch damit beschäftigt war, kam jemand aus der Richtung des Signalhauses durch das Schilf heran. Es war Sandormirs Lina. Sie brachte Vesperbrot und eine Zinnkanne mit Kaffee.

10. Der Name des zweiten Dorfes war (1) Wersum (2) früher Wersum gewesen (3) von mir vergessen worden (4) mir heimlich gesagt worden (5) mir nie genannt worden
11. Die Kirchtürme der Dörfer (1) waren unsichtbar (2) wurden von einem Herrn Wersum gezeichnet (3) liessen sich ohne Schwierigkeit beobachten (4) waren beide sehr niedrig (5) waren im Nebel verborgen
12. Vom Fenster aus sah ich (1) eine Anzahl Schiffe (2) das Wasser ungestüm dahinrauschen (3) undeutlich den Kirchturm eines Dorfes (4) das Wasser silbern schimmern (5) das silbrige Geglitzer der Segel
13. Als ich mit dem Fernglas beschäftigt war, (1) versäumte ich das Vesperbrot (2) sah ich Lina durch das Rohr herankommen (3) verweigerte mir Lina das Vesperbrot (4) liess jemand eine Zinnkanne mit Kaffee im Signalhaus liegen (5) ass Lina das Vesperbrot, ohne Notiz von mir zu nehmen
14. Als der Regen aufhörte, (1) zerstreute sich das Gewölk (2) fand ich mein Fernglas ganz unbrauchbar (3) war das Ufer meiner Heimat nicht mehr sichtbar (4) war mir die Klarheit kaum reizvoll (5) fiel mir der Name des zweiten Dorfes plötzlich auf

## *Spanish Reading Test*

### Part I

*Directions:* Five English words or expressions are given with each of the following Spanish words or expressions. Select the ONE English word or expression which is the best translation of the Spanish, and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under its number.

*Example:*
*abajo* (1) abase (2) below (3) abbey (4) fan (5) abate

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ┆ | ■ | ┆ | ┆ | ┆ |

1. *rostro* (1) roast (2) roster (3) rosy (4) face (5) clothing
2. *asomarse* (1) appear (2) appoint (3) shade (4) join (5) accord
3. *al alcance de* (1) to the aid of (2) to the mayor of (3) in the sense of (4) in reach of (5) by way of

### Part II

*Directions:* Five Spanish words are given with each of the following English words. Select the ONE Spanish word which is the best translation of the English, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

*Example:*
*cloud* (1) bodega (2) nube (3) cuaderno (4) col (5) cueva

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ┆ | ■ | ┆ | ┆ | ┆ |

4. *bitter* (1) sonrojado (2) descuido (3) dulce (4) cuello (5) amargo
5. *to pretend* (1) plegar (2) premiar (3) casar (4) conseguir (5) fingir
6. *track* (1) huella (2) naipe (3) chivo (4) horno (5) arroyo

### Part III

*Directions:* Each sentence in this section is followed by five numbered Spanish words or phrases. Select the ONE Spanish expression which is the best translation of the English word or words in parentheses, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

7. Estaba aquí pero no he oído (*anybody*). (1) alguno (2) alguien (3) nadie (4) a nadie (5) a alguien
8. Entró el bandido sin (*our knowing it*). (1) nuestro saber (2) sabiéndolo (3) que lo sepamos (4) que lo supiésemos (5) que lo sabiendo
9. ¡(*Do*) lo que quieras! (1) Haga (2) Hagas (3) Haz (4) Haya (5) Hace

## PART IV

*Directions:* Read the following passage carefully for comprehension. Some words or phrases are italicized; these words are repeated at the end of the passage, followed by five English words or phrases. Select the ONE English word or phrase which is the best and most appropriate translation, considering the context in which it appears, and on the appropriate line on the answer page blacken the space between the dotted lines under its number.

A number of incomplete statements, followed by five suggested completions, are also given after the passage. You are to select the ONE completion which is best according to the passage, and blacken the space beneath the corresponding number on the answer page.

Echado sobre el pasto del prado, Juanito estira acompasadamente los brazos y las piernas simulando gestos natatorios. Desde la orilla imaginaria del lago, Pepe lanza hacia él dos o tres veces un cáñamo *sin lograr alcanzarlo*.

—Ya no lanzo más el anzuelo—dice—, ahora *me toca a mí* hacer de pescado y a ti de pescador.

El supuesto pescado se pone de pie, rabioso y toma el anzuelo.

—Ya verás que sé pescar mejor que tú.

En este momento de la discusión llega Teruca llorando.

—¿Por qué lloras, Teruca?—dice Juanito.

—Odio a la "miss." Cuando le pedí mis zapatos para ponerlos esta noche en la chimenea, se puso a reír diciendo que no era Santa Claus quien dejaba los regalos en los zapatos de los niños.

*Volvió a llorar* Teruca.

10. *sin lograr alcanzarlo* (1) without succeeding in reaching him (2) without being able to come near it (3) without coming near the place (4) just managing to reach it (5) without tiring him
11. *me toca a mí* (1) I am struck (2) it touches me (3) he taps me (4) it's my turn (5) it is ringing for me
12. *Volvió a llorar* (1) turned around to cry (2) turned her back to cry (3) wept again (4) stopped crying (5) cried harder
13. Los dos niños estaban (1) nadando (2) paseando en un lago (3) divirtiéndose con un juego infantil (4) burlandose de Teruca (5) riñendo
14. Juanito (1) desempeña el papel de pez (2) por poco se cae al agua (3) no quiere seguir jugando (4) cree que Pepe sabe pescar mejor que él (5) hace gestos rápidos
15. Pepe (1) tiene una lanza (2) quiere hacer de pescado (3) se enfada (4) huye de Juanito (5) quiere pegar a Juanito

# NEW YORK STATE REGENTS EXAMINATIONS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

**[Supplied through the courtesy of Roy E. Mosher, Supervisor of Modern Languages, State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.]**

## FRENCH—Two Years

### Dictation and Aural Comprehension Test

Monday, June 17, 1946—1:15 to 4:15 P.M.

*Total time allowed: 1 hour (45 minutes for listening and doing the work in pencil, 15 minutes for copying in ink).* This is the *maximum* time; less time *may* be taken. Time saved from this part of the examination may be used for the rest of the examination. *At the close of the dictation and aural comprehension test (maximum time 1 hour), the finished copy should be collected.*

### Dictation

*Directions to the Examiner*

*a* Read the explanatory note in English, the pupils listening.

*b* First reading—*maximum* time: 5 minutes
Instruct pupils to put their pencils on the desks and listen to the first reading in French of the passage assigned. This reading should be at about the speed of the usual public speaker.

*c* Second reading (actual dictation)—*maximum* time: 10 minutes
Instruct pupils to take down in pencil the dictation as read slowly in breath groups as shown by the vertical lines in the printed passage. The punctuation should be given in French, including capitalization within the sentence not covered by general rules. The time assigned for this part of the test should be scrupulously observed.

*a* Third reading—*maximum* time: 5 minutes
Instruct pupils to listen carefully during a third reading of the dictation, which should be given at the same speed as the first reading.

1. Dictation: [10]

Explanatory note (to be read by the examiner): In this anecdote an older brother gives a painful lesson to a younger brother.

Jean joue | avec son petit frère, | Pierre, | âgé de deux ans. | La mère entend des cris; | elle se dépêche au salon | et voit Pierre | qui tire les cheveux de Jean. | La mère les sépare | et, pour calmer Jean, | elle lui dit: |

—Il faut pardonner | à ton frère; | il est si petit! | Il ne sait pas | que cela fait mal. |

Après quelques minutes, | nouveaux cris de douleur; | cette fois | c'est Pierre qui pleure, | parce que son frère | lui tire les cheveux. |

—Que fais-tu donc là? | s'écrie la mère. |

—Oh! Je donne une leçon | à Pierre; | maintenant il sait | que ça fait mal!

### AURAL COMPREHENSION TEST

### *Directions to the Examiner*

*a* Read the explanatory note in English, the pupils listening.

*b* First reading—*maximum* time: 5 minutes

Instruct pupils to listen carefully during the first reading in French of the passage set for this test *but not to write anything*. This reading should be at about the speed of normal speech as indicated above.

*c* Second reading—*maximum* time: 5 minutes

Read the passage again as in *b*.

*a* Written answers to oral questions—*maximum* time: 10 minutes

Instruct pupils to write in pencil in French the answers in complete sentences to the questions in French one by one as the questions are read. Each question is to be read twice. *Pupils should not write the questions.* The time for this part of the test should be scrupulously observed.

*e* Third reading—*maximum* time: 5 minutes.

The passage and the questions should be reread at about the speed of normal speech.

2 AURAL COMPREHENSION TEST: [10]

Explanatory note (to be read by the examiner): In this passage a small boy's guilty conscience causes him to make a strange answer to the priest.

Robert, un jeune garçon | d'un petit village, | avait un jour cassé, | en jouant, | une fenêtre de l'église. | Personne ne savait | que c'était lui | qui avait fait cela; | cependant, | l'enfant tremblait de peur | chaque fois que le curé le regardait. |

A l'école de dimanche | le curé demanda aux élèves: |

—Qui a fait le ciel et la terre? |

Robert, qui pensait toujours | à la fenêtre cassée, | répondit: | —Ce n'est pas moi, monsieur le curé. |

Le curé, | tout étonné d'une telle réponse, | répondit bien surpris: |

—Comment, ce n'est pas toi? |

—Eh bien, oui, | dit alors le petit | en baissant la tête, | c'est moi, | mais je ne le ferai plus.

Questions on the aural comprehension test (each to be read twice) to be answered in complete sentences in French:

1 Quels sont les personnages de l'histoire?
2 Qu'est-ce que l'enfant avait fait en jouant?
3 Que faisait-il chaque fois que le curé le regardait?
4 Qu'est-ce que le curé a demandé aux élèves?
5 Qu'est-ce que Robert a promis?

The pupils should now be given the 15 minutes allowed for copying their work in ink. *At the close of the dictation and aural comprehension test (maximum time, 1 hour), the finished copy should be collected.*

## THE RATING OF THESE TESTS

### *Dictation*

In French ¼ credit should be deducted for every error. In this plan of rating the unit is the word, that is, no more than one error to a word is counted. All errors are to be counted without distinction or differentiation, the word being the unit. This includes accents, capitalization, punctuation and division of syllables at end of lines. Do not penalize for repetition of the same error.

### *Aural Comprehension Test*

The answer to each question should be a complete sentence. Two credits are assigned to each answer, 1½ credits to comprehension, ½ credit to the expression in the foreign language. No fractional credit less than ¼ is allowable. No credit, however, should be allowed if the pupil has shown an absolute lack of comprehension of the content.

The University of the State of New York

297TH HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATION

## FRENCH—Two Years

Monday, June 17, 1946—1:15 to 4:15 P.M., only

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Write at top of first page of answer paper (*a*) name of school where you have studied, (*b*) number of weeks and recitations a week in each of the following separately: French 1, French 2.

The minimum time requirement is five recitations a week for a school year in (*a*) French 1, (*b*) French 2.

*Answer all 12 questions.*

*Questions 1 and 2 are to be allowed a maximum of 1 hour. If less than one hour is taken, the time saved may be used for the rest of the examination.*

1 Dictation (to be given by the examiner) [10]

2 Aural comprehension test (to be given by the examiner) [10]

*Questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 are to be allowed at least 2 hours and may be allowed the extra time saved from questions 1 and 2.*

3 Traduisez en anglais: [20]

Le général de Gaulle servit en 1914 sous Pétain. Blessé devant Verdun, où les Allemands le ramassèrent sur le champ de bataille, de Gaulle ne fut pas un prisonnier modèle, car il essaya cinq fois de s'échapper; mais chaque fois, étant repris aussitôt, il souffrit de sévères punitions. Ce courage est une qualité admirable de l'homme.

En 1932, nommé secrétaire-général de la Défense Nationale, il se trouva enfin en position de faire entendre ses théories de mécanisation, mais ses chefs ne voulaient pas écouter ses idées sur une armée mécanisée. Enfin, de Gaulle, en janvier 1940, envoya au général Gamelin une lettre dans laquelle il critiquait fortement tout le système de défense adopté par Gamelin. Voici quelques-unes de ses phrases: —Nous nous servons encore du système militaire imaginé par Napoléon. Dans la guerre moderne les opérations actives peuvent être exécutées seulement par des forces motorisées. La ligne Maginot, qui, selon vos idées, offre à la France une protection parfaite, peut être brisée.

Cinq mois plus tard cette prophétie si triste s'accomplit. De Gaulle alla en Angleterre, où il fut nommé chef des Forces Françaises Libres. Il est bon de savoir qu'aujourd'hui la France est encore une fois un pays libre et indépendant, et que de Gaulle a pu retourner à sa patrie bien aimée.

—D'après *Le Petit Journal*

4 Traduisez en français: [10]

If my brother | can return | from Europe, | our family will take | an auto trip | this summer. | When he sees | our new car | he will be surprised | because we have just | bought it. | He will probably ask us: | "How long | have you had it?" |

Every one is happy | that our boys | are home | again. | Now let us work | for a better world.

5 Après avoir lu le morceau suivant, répondez en anglais aux questions par des phrases complètes: [10]

Six petits garçons du village, entendant le cri de "Chien enragé," peuvent voir un grand chien qui s'approche à toute vitesse. Les petits se mettent

à courir, mais ils portent des sabots qui sont lourds. Ils ont terriblement peur et poussent des cris. Ils redoublent leurs efforts pour échapper au danger, mais tout ce qu'ils font est en vain. Ils voient bien que le chien court plus vite qu'eux, et les plus jeunes pleurent.

Alors le petit Jupille, qui avait quatorze ans, le plus âgé des six, décide de se sacrifier pour les autres.

—Courez vite, vous autres, dit-il. Moi, je vais rester ici pour arrêter la bête.

Les petits garçons obéissent à leur ami. Seul, il attend l'animal féroce. Il n'a pas longtemps à attendre, car le chien se jette d'un bond sur le garçon . . .

Mais cette histoire a une fin heureuse. Ce petit homme, si brave, fut transporté à Paris, où il fut guéri par Louis Pasteur, ce bienfaiteur de l'humanité.

—D'après *René Vallery-Radot*

*a* Pourquoi les enfants se mettent-ils à courir?
*b* Qu'est-ce qui les empêche de courir très vite?
*c* Que font les plus jeunes en voyant le grand danger?
*d* Que crie Jupille aux autres?
*e* Pourquoi cette histoire finit-elle bien?

6 Dans *cinq* des phrases suivantes remplacez l'infinitif entre parenthèses par la forme convenable du verbe: [5]

*a* Je vous (envoyer) une lettre, quand j'y arriverai.
*b* Si le bébé (dormir) bien, nous ne le réveillerons pas.
*c* Ma mère désire que vous (chercher) du beurre en ville.
*d* Après (tenir) la grenade un moment, le soldat l'a lancée.
*e* En (boire) beaucoup de café, on réussit à veiller.
*f* Je regrette beaucoup que vous ne (pouvoir) pas le faire.
*g* Elle n'a pas reçu les lettres que je lui avais (écrire).

7 Répondez en français par une phrase complète à *cinq* des questions suivantes: [5]

*a* Quel âge avez-vous?
*b* Qu'est-ce que vous allez faire cet été?
*c* Quel temps fait-il maintenant?
*d* Où va-t-on pour prendre un train?
*e* Comment s'appelle un homme qui guérit les malades?
*f* Quel est votre amusement favori?
*g* Lorsque quelqu'un fait quelque chose pour vous, que dites-vous?

8 Dans *cinq* des phrases suivantes remplacez le tiret par un pronom relatif convenable: [5]

*a* Dites-moi—vous faites.
*b* Mon frère,—demeure chez nous, va continuer son éducation.
*c* Avez-vous lu le journal—Robert lit?

*d* L'automobile dans—il se promenait est tombée dans le fleuve.
*e* Ma cousine—le mari est malade, va rester près de l'hôpital.
*f* Mon ami avec—je vais souvent au théâtre a quitté la ville.
*g* Montrez-moi—est dans votre poche.

9 Remplacez par un synonyme *cinq* des mots en italique: [2½]

*a* Je vais *me mettre à* le faire.
*b*.*Quand* il est arrivé, nous jouions au football.
*c*.*Je crains* qu'il ne soit en retard.
*d* Il va le faire *immédiatement*.
*e* J'aimerais *poser* une question.
*f*.L'*étudiant* est arrivé.
*g* Je vous *prie de* le faire.

10 Remplacez par le contraire *cinq* des mots en italique: [2½]

*a* En *été* on peut s'amuser.
*b* *A midi* on est à maison.
*c* Je me *lève* de bonne heure.
*d* La semaine *dernière*.
*e* Je n'ai pas d'*ennemis*.
*f* *A la campagne* on voit des bicyclettes.
*g* Ce panier est tout *plein*.

11 Écrivez les temps primitifs et la première personne du pluriel du conditionnel de *quatre* des verbes suivants: mourir, être, savoir, faire, aller, venir, vouloir. [10]

12 Dans *dix* des phrases suivantes choisissez le mot ou l'expression convenable pour compléter la phrase: [Il n'est pas nécessaire de copier les phrases.] [10]

*a* Une belle ville située sur la Riviera est (Nice, Le Havre, Lyon).
*b* Un port sur la Seine est (Tours, Rouen, Bordeaux).
*c* Une province où demeurent bien des pêcheurs est (la Bretagne, la Lorraine, la Champagne).
*d* Le chef du parti communiste en France est (Thorez, Laval, de Gaulle).
*e* Dans l'Afrique du Nord on assassina (Pétain, Darlan, le Clerc).
*f* En octobre de 1945 les (soldats, adolescents, femmes) ont voté pour la première fois en France.
*g* Un roi protestant qui changea de religion pour être roi français fut (François Premier, Henri Quatre, Louis Quatorze).
*h* "L'état c'est moi" dit (Louis Quatorze, Louis Quinze, Louis Seize).
*i* Un écrivain de fables au temps du Roi-Soleil fut (Corneille, La Fontaine, Molière).
*j* Une Française qui travaillait avec son mari dans un laboratoire de science fut (Jeanne d'Arc, Marie Antoinette, Marie Curie).

*k* Un peintre français est (Cézanne, Debussy, Voltaire).
*l* L'arc de triomphe de l'Etoile nous rappelle les victoires de (François Premier, Napoléon Trois, Napoléon Premier).
*m* Laval fut jugé dans le bâtiment appelé (le Palais de Justice, le Louvre, le Panthéon).
*n* Beaucoup de fameux Français sont enterrés dans (le Louvre, la Tour Eiffel, le Panthéon).
*o* En 1789 éclata (la Révolution française, la guerre franco-prussienne, la première guerre mondiale).

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The University of the State of New York

299TH HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATION

## SPANISH—Two Years

Monday, January 27, 1947—1:15 to 4:15 P.M., only

Write at top of first page of answer paper (*a*) name of school where you have studied, (*b*) number of weeks and recitations a week in each of the following separately: Spanish 1, Spanish 2.

The minimum time requirement is four or five recitations a week for a school year in (*a*) Spanish 1, (*b*) Spanish 2.

*Answer all nine questions.*

*Questions 1 and 2 are to be allowed a maximum of 1 hour. If less than 1 hour is taken, the time saved may be used for the rest of the examination.*

1 Dictation (to be given by the examiner) [10]

2 Aural comprehension test (to be given by the examiner) [10]

*Questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 are to be allowed at least 2 hours and may be allowed the extra time saved from questions 1 and 2.*

3 Tradúzcase al inglés: [20]

La Habana, 5 de Julio

Querido Carlos :

¿Cuándo tuvo usted noticias de Pedro? A los pocos días de estar en La Habana, recibí una carta de él pero no ha vuelto a escribirme después. ¿Qué tendrá él que no quiere escribirme? ¿Cree usted que esté enojado conmigo? Yo le escribo de vez en cuando pero no contesta a mis cartas.

¿Ha oído usted decir que Francisco se casó con la hija de los señores de Montoya? La ceremonia religiosa se verificó en el templo de Santa Teresa el quince de abril. La ceremonia civil tuvo lugar la mañana del mismo día, si mal no me acuerdo. Yo no pude asistir por haberme resfriado. Tuve que

guardar cama ocho días. Doña Julia, la esposa de Francisco, es bonita y simpática y, lo que es también importante, su padre es rico.

Como no sé fijamente la dirección de usted, me permito remitir esta carta a casa de su padre, quien se la enviará a usted, si no está usted ahí. Le ruego perdone la tardanza con que correspondo a su carta.

Créame siempre su buen amigo,

Juan

4 Tradúzcase al español: [10]

Last week | I met Pedro González. | He has just arrived | in our town | but he has been | in the United States | for three months. | Pedro is going to attend | our high school. | His father wants | him to live | with an American family, | where he can learn | the English language | and also our customs. | At the same time | he will help us | to become better acquainted with | our neighbors | in South America.

5 Lea usted el pasaje siguiente. No lo traduzca. Después escriba usted respuestas completas, en inglés, a las preguntas que siguen: [10]

El más célebre de los escritores del Perú fué Ricardo Palma. Inventó una forma de cuento al que dió el nombre de "tradición," y debe su fama a sus nueve libros de *Tradiciones peruanas*. Ningún otro escritor aprendió a imitar estos cuentos.

*Los polvos de la Condesa* es el título de una tradición suya. En junio del año 1631 estaba muy enferma la joven y bellísima condesa de Chinchón. Se hallaba atacada de la fiebre que desde el tiempo de los incas había causado muchas muertes en el valle del Rimac. Los mejores médicos de Lima fueron al palacio, pero no pudieron curar a la condesa. Al fin dijo el médico del palacio: "No hay esperanza. Sólo un milagro puede salvarla."

Aquel mismo día llegó al palacio un viejo sacerdote que prometió curarla. Le dió a ella unos polvos blancos hechos de la madera de cierto árbol llamado la *quina*. Al fin de un mes la condesa se hallaba sana y buena y se dió una gran fiesta para celebrar su feliz curación. Por muchos años después la gente de Lima llamaba esa medicina "polvos de la condesa." Hoy día se dice "la quinina."

*a* ¿A qué debe su fama Ricardo Palma?
*b* ¿Qué enfermedad tenía la condesa?
*c* ¿Qué dijo el médico del palacio?
*d* ¿Qué le dió a ella el viejo sacerdote?
*e* ¿Cómo se llama hoy día esta medicina?

6 Escríbanse las oraciones siguientes con el *presente*, el *pretérito*, el *condicional* y el *perfecto* del verbo en paréntesis: [10]

*a* Yo (llegar) temprano.
*b* Usted no me (decir) la verdad.
*c* Ellos (salir) de España.
*d* María (servir) bien.
*e* Nosotros (ir) a saludarle.

**7 Conteste usted en español en frases completas a *cinco* de las preguntas que siguen: [10]**

**_a_ ¿A cómo estamos hoy?**
**_b_ ¿Qué hace usted después de las clases para divertirse?**
**_c_ ¿Qué hace su padre para ganarse la vida?**
**_d_ ¿Qué deportes del invierno le gustan más?**
**_e_ ¿Cuáles son sus frutas favoritas?**
**_f_ ¿Qué toma usted al desayuno?**
**_g_ ¿Qué se dice cuando hay que pasar delante de una persona?**
**_h_ ¿Cómo se saluda a un buen amigo?**

**8 Escríbanse *diez* de las frases siguientes enteramente en español: [10]**

**_a_ ¿*Which* de estos libros es mío?**
**_b_ Cuando ella *finishes* la carta, dígamelo.**
**_c_ ¿Va Jorge al cine? *I think so.***
**_d_ Después de *taking a walk,* yo tenía hambre.**
**_e_ La vi en la ciudad *on the first of March.***
**_f_ *Have a good time* en el baile esta noche.**
**_g_ *There will be* mucha gente en el mercado.**
**_h_ Nuestro profesor pide *us to write* con cuidado.**
**_i_ *They say* que Juan ha vendido su casa.**
**_j_ *Bring it to her* en seguida.**
**_k_ María no conoce a Pedro. *Neither do I.***
**_l_ Juanita tiene *as much money as I.***
**_m_ Tomás y yo *used to get up early* todos los días.**
**_n_ *She doesn't like* manzanas.**
**_o_ Yo no creo que Pablo *can go* allí conmigo.**

**9 De las palabras entre paréntesis escoja usted la que complete la frase correctamente. Escoja usted *diez.* [10]**

**_a_ La sardana es (un baile, una fiesta, un juego, un plato).**
**_b_ En el Perú se hallan muchas ruinas de los (araucanos, aztecas, incas, toltecas).**
**_c_ (Casals, Chávez, Iturbi, Segovia) es un director de orquesta mexicano.**
**_d_ En la Argentina ahora es (el invierno, el otoño, la primavera, el verano).**
**_e_ *Las Meninas* es un cuadro de (Goya, Rivera, Sert, Velázquez).**
**_f_ (Paella, poncho, pulque, tortilla) es un plato mexicano.**
**_g_ Juan Perón es el presidente actual de (la Argentina, el Brasil, Chile, México).**
**_h_ Un porteño es un habitante de (Buenos Aires, Puerto Rico, Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo).**
**_i_ Un juego muy popular en Cuba es (jai-alai, jipijapa, mate, romería).**
**_j_ (Benavente, Galdós, Granados, Murillo) fué un gran novelista español.**

*k* Los moros dominaron a España durante (ocho, seis, tres, veinte) siglos.
*l* Barcelona es un puerto al (este, norte, oeste, sur) de España.
*m* Lope de Vega escribió (dramas, ensayos, gramáticas, novelas).
*n* La capital del Uruguay es (Asunción, Caracas, Toledo, Montevideo).
*o* Sevilla está en el (Duero, Ebro, Guadalquivir, Tajo).
*p* El país que produce más estaño en todo el mundo es (Bolivia, el Brasil, Chile, Venezuela).

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The University of the State of New York

297TH HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATION

## GERMAN—Two Years

Monday, June 17, 1946—1:15 to 4:15 P.M., only

Write at top of first page of answer paper (*a*) name of school where you have studied, (*b*) number of weeks and recitations a week in each of the following separately: German 1, German 2.

The minimum time requirement is five recitations a week for a school year in (*a*) German 1, (*b*) German 2.

*Answer all 10 questions.*

*Questions 1 and 2 are to be allowed a maximum of 1 hour. If less than 1 hour is taken, the time saved may be used for the rest of the examination.*

1 Dictation (to be given by the examiner) [10]

2 Aural comprehension test (to be given by the examiner) [10]

*Questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 are to be allowed at least 2 hours and may be allowed the extra time saved from questions 1 and 2.*

3 Übersetzen Sie ins Englische: [20]

Vor einem grossen Walde wohnte ein armer Holzarbeiter mit seiner Frau und seinen zwei Kindern; der Junge hiess Hänsel und das Mädchen Gretel. Die Zeiten wurden immer schwerer, und einmal, als grosse Not ins Land kam, konnte der Vater auch das tägliche Brot nicht mehr verdienen. Das machte den Eltern grosse Sorgen.

Da riet die Frau eines Abends ihrem Mann: "Wir wollen morgen früh die Kinder hinaus in den Wald führen, wo er am dichtesten ist. Da machen wir ihnen ein Feuer und geben jedem noch ein Stückchen Brot; dann gehen wir an unsere Arbeit und lassen sie allein im Wald."

Die zwei Kinder hatten vor Hunger nicht einschlafen können und hatten alles gehört. Gretel weinte bittere Tränen, aber Hänsel sprach ihr Trost zu: "Ich will uns schon helfen." Er stand auf, zog sich an, und ging hinaus. Da

schien der Mond ganz hell, und die weissen Steinchen, die vor dem Hause lagen, glänzten wie lauter Silber. Hänsel steckte viele davon in seine Tasche. Er wollte sie den nächsten Morgen auf den Weg werfen, um den Weg wieder nach Hause zu finden.

—Brüder Grimm, *Deutsche Märchen*

4 Ins Deutsche zu übersetzen:

*a* In the morning the mother called the children. [1½]
*b* "Get up," she said, "we are going to the forest." [2]
*c* They did not eat the bread which the mother gave them, although they were hungry. [3]
*d* We know this story by heart, don't we? [1½]
*e* We often sing the songs from *Hänsel und Gretel* in school. [2]

5 Lesen Sie diese Geschichte durch, bis Sie den Inhalt verstehen. Beantworten Sie dann die *fünf* Fragen in ganzen Sätzen auf englisch: [10]

Ein General war dafür bekannt, dass er gern Fragen stellte, die nicht leicht zu beantworten waren. Er pflegte zu sagen: "Lieber eine dumme Antwort als keine!" Als er eines Abends im Winter bei kaltem, klarem Wetter spät nach Hause kam, traf er einen Soldaten, der vor seiner Tür wachte; und um ihn zu prüfen, fragte er ihn: "Sage mir, wieviele Sterne stehen am Himmel?"

Der Soldat, der eine laute Stimme hatte, fing an zu zählen: "Eins—zwei—drei—vier" und so weiter. Nun wollte aber der General in der Kälte nicht die halbe Nacht stehen bleiben und sagte daher freundlich: "Sage es mir morgen, aber zähle leise, damit die Nachbarn nicht aufwachen."

Am andern Morgen beim Frühstück liess er den Soldaten kommen, um die Antwort zu hören. "Also, wieviele?" fragte er. "Zu Befehl, Herr General. Bei dreihundertvierundachtzig war meine befohlene Zeit vorbei, und ein anderer Soldat trat an meine Stelle."

*a* Wofür war der General bekannt?
*b* Warum stand der Soldat vor dem Hause?
*c* Was wollte der General von ihm wissen?
*d* Weshalb wartete der General nicht auf die Antwort?
*e* Wie zeigte der Soldat, dass er schlau war?

6 Ergänzen Sie die fehlenden Endungen: [5]

Letzt- Freitag ging ich in einen klein- Bücherladen und kaufte mir ein neu- Buch. Zu Hause habe ich es während des ganz- Abends gelesen. Es erzählt von einem klein- arm- Mädchen namens Gretel und ihr- jung- Bruder. Die Mutter der arm- Kinder schickte sie in den Wald. Hier sang Gretel das berühmt- Lied "Ein Männlein steht im Walde."

7 Schreiben Sie die Hauptformen (Grundformen) von *sechs* der folgenden Verben [Beispiel: sitzen, sitzt, sass, hat gesessen, sitze!]: anfangen, nehmen, bringen, sich befinden, schlafen, bezahlen, schneiden, schliessen. [12]

8 Schreiben Sie den folgenden Paragraphen ganz auf deutsch ab: [10]

Im Walde wurde es immer *darker*. Der Junge, *whose* Korb voll Blumen war, folgte *his* Schwester und reichte sie *to her*. "*Where* sollen wir nun gehen?" fragte sie. Sie horchten, aber alles, *that* sie hörten, war ein Vogel. "*Who* ist da?" riefen sie. Im dichten Nebel *could* sie ein graues Männchen sehen. Es flüsterte: "Ihr *should* schlafen, fürchtet euch nicht vor *me*."

9 Beantworten Sie *fünf* der folgenden Fragen *in ganzen Sätzen auf deutsch:* [5]

*a* Was tun Sie zu Hause, um dem Vater (der Mutter) zu helfen?
*b* Welche zwei Tiere haben Sie am liebsten?
*c* Was haben Sie gestern nachmittag getan?
*d* Welchen Feiertag haben Sie am liebsten?
*e* Um wieviel Uhr ruft Ihre Mutter Sie morgens?
*f* Wie kommen Sie zur Schule?
*g* Nennen Sie zwei deutsche Märchen ausser *Hänsel und Gretel.*

10 Wählen Sie in *acht* der folgenden Sätze die richtige Antwort: [8]

*a* Nürnberg liegt in (Hessen, Bayern, Westfalen).
*b* Brahms *Schlummerlied* fängt an mit ("In einem kühlen Grunde," "Guten Abend, gute Nacht," "Ich weiss nicht, was soll es bedeuten.")
*c* Die Geschichte von (*Bambi, Wilhelm Tell, Emil und die Detektive*) ist von Felix Salten geschrieben.
*d* (Koch und Bunsen, Dürer und Schwind, Haydn und Weber) waren berühmte Maler.
*e* (Rübezahl, Bismarck, Friedrich Barbarossa) war ein deutscher Kaiser.
*f* (*Lohengrin, Der Freischütz, Die Zauberflöte*) ist eine Oper von Richard Wagner.
*g* Die Oper (*Fidelio, Die Meistersinger, Tannhäuser*) enthält das "Preislied."
*h* (Peter Minuit, Roebling, Steinmetz) arbeitete hier schon in den amerikanischen Kolonien.
*i* Der Bodensee ist im (Norden, Süden, Westen) von Deutschland.
*j* Bayern liegt jetzt in der (russischen, französischen, amerikanischen) Zone.
*k* (Stuttgart, Hamburg, Berlin) ist von den Alliierten in vier Zonen geteilt worden.
*l* Eine sehr alte Stadt Deutschlands ist (Friedrichshafen, Kiel, Rothenburg).
*m* (Der Neckar, Der Schwarzwald, Magdeburg) ist ein Gebirge.
*n* Das Land ist flach in (Norddeutschland, Bayern, Thüringen).
*o* (Hannover, Frankfurt, Freiburg) ist wegen der Farbenindustrie bekannt.
*p* (Mozart, Humperdinck, Schumann) komponierte die Oper *Hänsel und Gretel.*

The University of the State of New York

297th High School Examination

## ITALIAN—Two Years

Monday, June 17, 1946—1:15 to 4:15 p.m., only

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Write at top of first page of answer paper (*a*) name of school where you have studied, (*b*) number of weeks and recitations a week in each of the following separately: Italian 1, Italian 2.

The minimum time requirement is five recitations a week for a school year in (*a*) Italian 1, (*b*) Italian 2.

*Answer all 10 questions.*

*Questions 1 and 2 are to be allowed a maximum of one hour. If less than one hour is taken, the time saved may be used for the rest of the examination.*

1 Dictation (to be given by the examiner) [10]

2 Aural comprehension test (to be given by the examiner) [10]

*Questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 are to be allowed at least 2 hours and may be allowed the extra time saved from questions 1 and 2.*

3 Traducete in inglese: [20]

A causa dei suoi monti l'Italia è stata sempre divisa geograficamente. Per questa ragione ed anche perchè è stata invasa ed abitata da altre nazioni, oggi ci sono in Italia molti dialetti. Sono variazioni della vera lingua italiana con influenze d'altre lingue straniere. Siccome il dialetto si vede raramente in formà scritta, s'impara di bocca in bocca.

Alcuni dialetti sono così differenti dalla lingua italiana che è quasi impossibile capirli se non si sanno. Certamente nelle scuole s'insegna il vero italiano e molti Italiani sanno parlare non solamente la vera lingua ma anche il dialetto della loro propria regione, e molte volte ne conoscono parecchi altri.

Di solito si sente parlare il dialetto nei piccoli paesi e dai contadini. Ufficialmente si parla una sola lingua, quella di Dante. che fu il primo a scriverla.

I dialetti non sono ammirati da tutti, ma si deve riconoscere il fatto che sono pieni d'espressione e di colore. Sono così importanti che di tanto in tanto gli scrittori ne fanno uso.

4 Traducete in italiano: [10]

We shall leave | Monday | for California. | Last month | my father bought | a beautiful blue car. | Our family | is small, | so we shall travel very comfortably. | My grandfather, | who is | seventy-three years old, |

**has invited us | to spend | the whole summer | with him. | We must return | in the fall.**

**5 Leggete il seguente racconto e senza tradurre rispondete in inglese alle domande che seguono: [10]**

**Era un pittore povero e scoraggiato. Ogni giorno usciva per vendere le sue pitture, ma non riusciva a trovare un compratore.**

**Un giorno ritornò triste e stanco al suo studio. Neanche accese la lampada. Si gettò sul letto e mentre pensava alla sua sfortuna, sentì un rumore alla finestra. Vide un uomo che s'avvicinava in punta di piedi al centro della camera. Era un ladro.**

**Era così grande la sorpresa del pittore che non si poteva muovere pel momento e così guardava il ladro mentre andava per lo studio rubando i suoi quadri. Finalmente, passati i primi effetti della sorpresa, il pittore saltò dal letto, e l'intruso vide che non era solo. Stava per lasciare cadere a terra i quadri e scappare quando il pittore gli disse:**

**—Non abbiate paura! Se desiderate, potete portar via le pitture, ma ditemi, per piacere, dove vendete questi quadri che rubate?**

***a* Perchè usciva ogni giorno il pittore?**
***b* Come ritornò un giorno allo studio?**
***c* Chi entrò nella camera?**
***d* Che faceva il ladro?**
***e* Che cosa voleva sapere il pittore?**

**6 Traducete in italiano i verbi in corsivo: [10]**

***a* Riccardo, non *go out* stasera. (uscire)**
***b* *I was born* nel 1929. (nascere)**
***c* Chi *has gone down* questa volta? (scendere)**
***d* Ogni mattina *he used to read* le notizie. (leggere)**
***e* *She will come* a visitarci domani. (venire)**
***f* *We go to bed* troppo tardi. (coricarsi)**
***g* *They answered* a tutte le mie lettere. (rispondere)**
***h* Perchè *is she opening* la scatola proprio ora? (aprire)**
***i* I ragazzi *were doing* il loro compito. (fare)**
***j* *I don't want* aspettare più. (volere)**

**7 Rispondete in italiano con frasi complete alle domande seguenti: [5]**

***a* Quanti ne abbiamo oggi?**
***b* Dove abitate?**
***c* Qual'è la stagione più calda dell'anno?**
***d* Quando comincia l'anno scolastico?**
***e* Di solito, a che ora si cena in casa vostra?**

**8 Scegliete *cinque* dei seguenti modi di dire, ed usate ciascuno in una proposizione in italiano, traducendola poi in inglese: aver apetito, essere di, star in piedi, da ora in poi, fra poco, aver freddo, ad alta voce, intorno a, dire di no. [5]**

9 Scegliete la parola adatta fra parentesi per completare *dieci* delle seguenti proposizioni: [10]

*a* Tre lingue romanze sono: l'italiano, lo spagnuolo e (l'inglese, il francese, il tedesco).
*b* La Scala di Milano è (un teatro, una festa religiosa, un giornale).
*c* Il fiume che bagna Pisa e Firenze è (l'Adige, il Tevere, l'Arno).
*d* (Lo Stretto di Messina, lo Stretto di Gibilterra, l'Adriatico) divide l'Italia e la Sicilia.
*e* (Leopardi, Martinelli, Torricelli) inventò il barometro.
*f* Il Po sbocca nel Mar (Adriatico, Ionio, Tirreno).
*g* L'unificazione d'Italia si completò nel (1321, 1870, 1812).
*h* (Respighi, Bellini, Pergolesi) è un celebre compositore di musica contemporaneo.
*i* La famosa opera intitolata *I Pagliacci* fu composta da (Verdi, Mascagni, Leoncavallo).
*j* Taormina è un'antica città greca in (Sicilia, Calabria, Sardegna).
*k* Francesco Petrarca fu un gran (poeta, musicista, scienziato) italiano.
*l* "La Superba" è il nome dato a (Salerno, Ancona, Genova).
*m* Giovanni Caboto fu un celebre (scrittore, navigatore, pittore).
*n* Dante nacque a (Firenze, Urbino, Ravenna).

10 Riscrivete le proposizioni seguenti traducendo le parole inglesi in italiano: [10]

*a* Volete comprare questo libro o *that one?*
*b* Conosci *her* fratello?
*c* *What a* capello brutto!
*d* Dite *him* la verità!
*e* Papà legge il giornale *in the* studio.
*f* È più cotone *than* seta.
*g* Tutti sappiamo *with whom* parlò.
*h* *Which ones* sono usati?
*i* Beviamo *a little* caffè.
*j* Partiremo *July first.*

# APPENDIX B : REALIA LISTS

## AMERICAN REALIA FOR SPANISH CLASSES

[Courtesy of Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Service Bureau for Modern Language Teachers, Dr. Minnie M. Miller, Director.]

### I. GENERAL SOURCES OF REALIA

1. Spanish teachers may secure additional information from the *Handbook for Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese* (D. C. Heath and Company) and the issues of *Hispania*, published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, George Washington University, Washington, D. C., $2.00 per year.

2. The Service Bureau at the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia distributes at cost of postage (5 cents each) mimeographed bulletins on series for Spanish conversation, bibliography of reading texts, Spanish clubs, holidays and festivals, books in English on Latin America, tests and test-building, etc. Annotated postcards are loaned for 2 weeks for postage (12 cents). There are 2 sets: Mexico and Spain (Granada, Seville, Toledo, Madrid and Spanish Art). The Service Bureau still has a few illustrated booklets on Spanish cities (5 cents).

3. The Hispanic Society of America, 156th Street west of Broadway, New York, has a free public library and museum containing paintings, art objects, manuscripts, books, and maps of Spanish and Portuguese peoples. It distributes free leaflets with prints and explanation of its art objects. The Society also has for sale some books on Spanish literature and art, folders describing its collections, and photographs of the objects in its collections.

4. The United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, 25, in the American Republics Section has loan packets on various Latin American topics which may be borrowed for cost of return postage. This office also maintains a roster of teachers who wish to go to Latin America and Latin Americans who wish to teach in this country. It also has a list of Latin Americans who desire to correspond with students in the United States.

5. The Pan American Union at Washington, D. C., has numerous services for Spanish teachers including bibliographies on games and plays for clubs, lists of Spanish records for classroom use, names of travel companies in Latin America, sources for Latin American music, bibliography on the value of Spanish, information on Latin American universities and on cor-

respondence with Spanish-speaking students, lists of films and slides for Spanish classes, etc. Material is distributed free for Pan American Day programs. Information is given on the formation of Pan American Clubs. Booklets on Latin American countries and cities may be secured at small cost.

6. Banks Upshaw and Company, 707 Browder Street, Dallas, Texas, are importers of Spanish realia. Besides books and magazines in Spanish they sell maps, crossword puzzles, postcards, pictures, Bibles in Spanish, flags, statuettes, calendars, songs, etc. This company publishes *Regional Dances of Mexico* by Edith Johnston at $1.38. Banks Upshaw also has pageants and plays for assembly programs.

7. The Schoenhof Book Company, Harvard Square, Cambridge, 38, Massachusetts, sells Spanish books as does G. E. Stechert, 29–37 East 10th Street, New York City.

8. Mexican curios and Indian handicraft may be secured from Maisel's Indian Trading Post, 510 W. Central, Albuquerque, New Mexico and from La Librería Lozano, 118 N. Santa Rosa Avenue, San Antonio, Texas, as well as other stores throughout the Southwest.

9. Madame Hilde K. Held, Cold Hill, Granby, Massachusetts, imports Spanish realia.

10 Teachers interested in Spanish for the elementary school may secure *Amigos panamericanos*, readers from grades 3 to 8, from the Steck Company, Austin, Texas.

11. The Julie Naud Company, P. O. Box 120, Station W, New York, 24, sells a workbook, *Fun Learning Spanish*, at $1.00.

12. The Gessler Publishing Company, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, sells Spanish art prints, playlets, and songbooks.

## II. PICTURES

1. Artext Prints, Art Extension Press, Westport, Connecticut, sells reproductions of works of art in color, 8 by 10 inches, 50 cents. Postcards showing Spanish pictures, 4 by 6 inches, 15 cents. Artext Juniors, 3 by 4 inches, 2 cents. Reproductions suitable for framing at various prices.

2. Brown-Robertson Company, Art Education, 35 West 34 Street, New York. Color miniatures of famous paintings, 1 cent each. Museum color prints, 8 by 10 inches, 50 cents.

3. The Chicago Art Institute rents photographs and color prints, 10 cents, colored slides (15 cents), and postcards (1 cent). The borrower pays transportation and service charges.

4. The French and European Publications, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, has *Costumes espagnols* by Gallois and *South American Costumes* by Halouze. These books with color plates sell at $25.00 each. Cards in color depicting costumes of Spanish provinces sell at 15 cents each.

5. The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, rents slides, photographs, and small art objects for $1.00 plus carrying charges. There is no charge to New York City schools.

6. The *National Geographic Magazine,* 16th and M Streets, N. W., Washington, is an excellent source of pictures of Spain and Latin America. Yearly subscription is $3.50. Weekly illustrated bulletins for school use, 30 cents per year.

7. The Perry Pictures Company of Malden, Massachusetts has pictures of Spain, Spanish art, and some pictures of Latin America, 5½ by 8 inches, 2 cents each. Other sizes at corresponding prices. Miniatures in color at 1 cent each. Send for catalogue. These pictures may be mounted on black construction paper to decorate the classroom.

8. University Prints, 11 Boyd Street, Newton, Massachusetts. Reproductions of works of art. Black and white prints, 5½ by 8 inches, 2 cents each. Color prints, 4 cents each.

## III. SLIDES AND FILMS

1. Beseler Lantern Slide Company, 131 East 23rd Street, New York. About 50,000 slides for sale or rent. Slides rent at 10 cents each plus transportation and sell at 50 cents each for plain slides and $2.00 for colored slides.

2. The University of Kansas (Lawrence), Extension Division, rents films (16mm.) and slides to schools anywhere in the United States. The usual cost of about $1.00 for each roll of film and 50 cents a set for slides plus carriage charges. Mimeographed syllabus for each set. Material on Spain and Latin America.

3. The Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago, sells a set of 10 rolls of pictures to teach elementary Spanish at $18.50. Separate rolls at $2.00. There are also cultural films on life in Spain and Latin America at $1.00 each. This company also sells Kodachrome slides, 2 by 2 inches at 50 cents each.

4. Spanish movies may be secured from such companies as (1) Clase-Mohme Company, 723 Seventh Avenue, New York; (2) Azteca Films Distributing Company, 1907 S. Vermont Avenue, Los Angeles; (3) Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York; and (4) Ideal Pictures Corporation, 28–34 East Eighth Street, Chicago, 5 (16 mm.).

## MAPS

1. R. R. Bowker and Company, 62 West 45th Street, New York, has a *Picture Map of Spain,* 25 by 33 inches, 75 cents. Presents Spanish history and literature.

2. Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, 40. Maps with Spanish text: Spain, Mexico, South America, Central America. 52 by 40 inches, with spring roller, $10.50 each.

3. A. J. Nystrom, 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago. Spanish Name Series: (1) Spain; (2) Mexico, Central America and the West Indies; (3) South America. $9.75 each.

4. Rand McNally and Company, 536 S. Clark Street, Chicago 5. Spanish name map of Spain. $11.00 in steel spring roller case.

5. The Thrift Press, 317 College Avenue, Ithaca, New York, sells a wall map of Latin America and students' maps of either Latin America or Spain at 2 cents each.

## FLAGS

1. American Flag Company, 73–77 Mercer Street, New York, sells flags of Spain and of Latin American countries: 2 by 3 inches, $1.20 a dozen; 4 by 6 inches, $2.40; and 12 by 18 inches, $12.00 a dozen. Set of 21 Pan American flags, 4 by 6 inches, mounted, $4.20 a set with stands at $2.50 each.

## NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES

1. Professor F. Dewey Amner, Kent University, Kent, Ohio, arranges orders for Latin American magazines. Price list on request. For $1.00 Professor Amner will send an assorted packet of copies, some for loan and some as free samples.

2. *El Eco,* published twice monthly by the Odyssey Press, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York, 16. $1.50 for the school year. Reduction for bulk subscriptions.

3. *La Luz,* Banks Upshaw and Company, 707 Browder Street, Dallas, 1, Texas. $2.00 a year for 16 issues in single copies; 10 or more copies at $1.00 a year.

4. *Norte. Revista Continental.* 101 Fifth Avenue, New York. Monthly. $3.00 a year.

5. *The Pan American,* 1150 Avenue of the Americas, New York, 19. Monthly. $7.50 a year including *The Pan American Yearbook.* Student club rates, $2.00.

6. *El Taquígrafo Gregg,* 270 Madison Avenue, New York, 16. Quarterly. 75 cents a year.

7. *La Prensa,* 245 Canal Street, New York, 13. Single issues, 5 or more copies, at 2 cents each. Series C, once a week, $2.40 a year. Yearly subscription for the daily newspaper is $9.00.

8. *La Prensa,* 120 N. Santa Rosa, San Antonio, 7, Texas. Daily edition, $7.50 a year. Sunday paper only, $3.50 a year.

9. *The Reader's Digest,* Pleasantville, New York, issues a Spanish edition for Latin American readers. $3.00 per year. Special group rates and teachers' helps.

10. Periodicals published in Latin America and available for schools include such magazines as (1) *Revista geografía americana* (travel monthly), Argentina; (2) *Revista de las Indias,* Bogotá, $2.50; (3) América, Havana, $2.00; (4) *Hoy* (illustrated weekly), Mexico, $12.00 a year; (5) *Tiempo* (weekly news magazine), Mexico, $6.00 per year; (6) *Excelsior,* Mexico, $2.40 a year for Sunday edition.

## RADIO PROGRAMS

1. Most state universities such as Ohio State University (Columbus) broadcast lessons in Spanish. Write the head of the Spanish department for latest information.

2. The Worldwide Broadcasting Foundation, 598 Madison Avenue, New York, has programs in Spanish of various kinds as well as talks on contemporary affairs.

3. The Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York, 22, and the National Broadcasting Company, R. C. A. Building, Radio City, New York, issue bulletins to schools showing their educational offerings and listing their programs in Spanish.

4. *La Prensa* of New York and other Spanish papers give radio information. Mexico, Cuba, and other Latin American countries may be heard over most radios.

## PHONOGRAPH RECORDS

1. *Linguaphone Conversational Records,* Linguaphone Institute, Rockefeller Center, New York, $50.00 for 30 lessons. Discount to schools. Part of set may be purchased. *Linguaphone Literary Series,* 10 records, $50.00. Single records available. *Brush Up Your Spanish* and *Manual of Spanish Pronunciation,* 5 records each at $15.00 for set.

2. R. D. Cortina Company, 105 West 40th Street, New York. 15 records with text, $50.00 School discount, 20%. Single records, $3.50.

3. R. C. A. (Victor) Company, Camden, New Jersey. *New World Spanish,* 20 ten-inch records by Doyle and Aguilera. Instruction book. For class instruction or home teaching, $24.45. The Victor Company also has many offerings in Spanish music.

4. Decca Distributing Corporation, 22 West Hubbard, Chicago, sells Spanish lesson set of 16 records with books, $39.95 plus tax. Single records, $2.75 each.

5. Henry Holt and Company, 257 Fourth Avenue, New York, sells 12 records giving first 12 units of *Spoken Spanish* by Treviño (D. C. Heath). $50.00 for course and text.

6. The Gramophone Shop, 18 East 48th Street, New York, has domestic and imported records for sale. Catalogue sent on request. Spanish songs, piano selections, folk music, operettas, and records of literary selections.

7. Walter Garwick, Harrison, New York, has 3 records of Spanish sounds. $5.00.

## SONGS

1. For individual Spanish songs, write the Edward B. Marks Music Corporation, R. C. A. Building, Radio City, New York. This company publishes *La hora del canto,* a collection of Latin American songs.

2. Silver Burdett Company, 221 East 20th Street, Chicago, 16, publishes *Canciones populares* ($1.26), *Canciones panamericanas* (60 cents), and *Canciones típicas* (60 cents). Postage is additional.

3. The Thrift Press, 317 College Avenue, Ithaca, New York sells 2 volumes of *Canciones populares,* 15 cents each, and Spanish Christmas songs at 10 cents.

4. D. C. Heath and Company, 1815 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, 16, sells *Vamos a cantar* by Allena Luce, 52 cents.

5. Banks Upshaw and Company, 707 Browder Street, Dallas, Texas, has *Memories of Mexico,* $1.00 and *Memories of Spain,* $1.00.

6. Schirmer Music Stores, 700 West 7th Street, Los Angeles, sells *Spanish Songs of Old California,* $1.25.

7. Ralph F. Seymour, 410 S. Michigan, Chicago, sells *Spanish Folk Songs of New Mexico,* $1.50.

## INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE

1. International Students Society, Hillsboro, Oregon, Dr. N. H. Crowell. 10 cents for each name. Correspondents in Mexico, South America, and West Indies.

2. National Bureau of Educational Correspondence, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. Dr. A. I. Roehm, director. 10 cents a name. Correspondence with all Latin American countires.

## COMMERCIAL REALIA

1. Eastman Kodak Company, 343 State Street Rochester, 4, New York. Illustrated booklets in Spanish for their Latin American trade.

2. Allis-Chalmers Company, Tractor Division, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, has attractive calendars in Spanish.

3. Missouri Pacific Railroad, Passenger Traffic Department, Saint Louis, Missouri. Information on travel to Mexico by rail.

4. Pan American Airways System, 135 East 42nd Street, New York, 17, publishes the *Classrom Clipper* in English and Spanish.

5. Remington Rand, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York, 10, has pamphlets about typewriters for use by Spanish-speaking patrons.

6. Middle America Information Bureau, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, distributes free information on Central America.

7. Colored posters are difficult to secure. Mexican posters may at times be obtained from the Departmento de Turismo, Secretario de gobernación, Bucareli, 99 Mexico, D. F.

8. The Pemex Travel Bureau, Apartado 55 bis, Mexico, D. F., sends illustrated booklets to teachers concerning travel in Mexico.

# AMERICAN SOURCES OF REALIA FOR FRENCH CLASSES

**[Courtesy of A.A.T.F. Information Bureau, Prof. Daniel Girard, Director.]**

## I. LOAN EXHIBITS

**1. The A.A.T.F. has a loan exhibit of French realia which may be obtained for cost of transportation one way by writing to Dr. Minnie M. Miller, Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.**

## II. SERVICE BUREAUS

**1. The Information Bureau of the A.A.T.F., directed by Professor Daniel Girard, Teachers College, Columbia University, issues bulletins five times a year giving current information for French teachers and furnishes pamphlets and other aids for improving the teaching of French. Lists of material free on request.**

**2. The Service Bureau for Modern Language Teachers, Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas, has mimeographed bulletins on French clubs, lists of French holidays, series for conversation, annotated list of reading texts, and test building. Postage only (5 cents a bulletin). Annotated postcard sets on loan.**

**3. The French Embassy, 934 Fifth Avenue, New York 21, offers for loan to schools color slides of French paintings and French railway posters, exhibits of reproductions of French paintings, and 16mm. sound films (both documentary and fictional). Nominal charge.**

## III. GENERAL SOURCES OF REALIA

**1. Gessler Publishing Company, Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y. (puppets, song-books, games, playlets, colored art reproductions, etc.)**

**2. Julie Naud Company, P. O. Box 120, Station W, N. Y. 24, French Color Books (30 cents), French books for children, playlets, a game (*Le Jeu du Ramoneur*), etc.**

**3. Banks Upshaw and Company, 707 Browder Street, Dallas, Texas, (plays, games, flags, crossword puzzles, books, verb wheels, etc.)**

**4. French and European Publications, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, has recent and standard French books of all kinds, maps, magazines in French, etc. This company publishes *Costumes des Provinces françaises* by Gallois with reproductions in color ($25.00) and cards in color depicting provincial costumes (15 cents each).**

**5. Schoenhof Book Company, Harvard Square, Cambridge, 38, Mass.**

(French books, Christmas cards, children's books, picture maps of France, games, etc.)

6. Other companies selling French books are (1) Brentano's, 586 Fifth Avenue, N. Y.; (2) G. E. Stechert, 29–37 East 10th Street, N. Y.; (3) Gerald Lipton, 791 Lexington Avenue, N. Y.; (4) Maurice Sloog of the French Book Company, 29 West 56th Street, N. Y.; (5) Pantheon Books, 41 Washington Square, N. Y. 12; (6) United French Book Center, 175 Fifth Avenue, N. Y. Such companies often sell other realia.

7. The Gregg Publishing Company, 6 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, sells *Etudes graduées de vitesse en Sténographie* at $1.20.

8. The French Institute in the United States, 22 E. 60th St., N. Y. 22, maintains a large French library with local and postal rental service. Membership is $8.00 per year.

9. The American Flag Company, 73–77 Mercer Street, N. Y., sells printed French flags, 2 by 3 inches, at $1.20 a doz. Larger sizes at corresponding prices.

10. Bernard Ravca, 344 West 89th Street, N. Y. 24, has dolls in authentic provincial costumes; 7 inches at $9.95 and 10 inches at $15.95.

11. Madame Hilde K. Held, Cold Hill, Granby, Mass., imports French realia.

## IV. PICTURES

1. *National Geographic Magazine,* Hubbard Memorial Hall, Washington, D. C. Excellent source of pictures of France and French-speaking countries. Yearly subscription is $3.50. Weekly bulletins for school use, 30 cents a year.

2. Perry Pictures Company of Malden, Mass. Pictures of France and of French art, 5½ inches by 8 inches, 2 cents each. Other sizes at corresponding prices. Miniatures in color, 1 cent each. Send for catalogue.

3. Artext Prints, Inc., Art Extension Press, Westport, Conn. Reproductions of works of art, in color, 8 by 10 inches, 50 cents. Artext Juniors, 3 by 4 inches, $2.00 per hundred. Postcards reproducing French art, 4 by 6 inches, 15 cents. Artextra, color reproductions, 16 by 20 inches, $3.50 each. Other reproductions for framing, various prices.

4. Brown-Robertson Company, Art Education, 6 East 34th St., N. Y. Color miniatures of famous paintings, 1 cent each. Museum color prints, 8 by 10 inches, 50 cents. Color film slides at 50 cents each.

5. University Prints, 11 Boyd Street, Newton, Mass. Reproductions of works of art. Black and white prints, 5½ by 8 inches, 2 cents each. Color prints, 4 cents.

6. Enlargements of Commemorative French stamps, black and white prints (11 by 16½ inches), 10 cents each. Write Professor Daniel Girard, Teachers College, Columbia University. Send for free list of 60 pictures. Others in preparation.

## V. SLIDES AND FILMS

1. Beseler Lantern Slide Company, 131 East 23rd St., N. Y. About 50,000 slides for sale or rent. Slides rent at 10 cents each plus transportation and sell at 50 cents each for plain slides and $2.00 for colored slides.

2. Chicago Art Institute rents photographs, color prints (10 cents each), colored slides (15 cents), and postcards (1 cent). The borrower pays transportation charges and a service charge.

3. University of Kansas (Lawrence), Extension Division, rents 16 mm. sound films to schools anywhere in the U. S. *Paris the Beautiful* (1 reel) rents at 60 cents and *French-Canadian Children* at $1.50 plus express charges. There are also 16 mm. films showing historical development of French cinema. Glass slides of Paris and French art are rented for 25 cents a set plus transportation charges. Mimeographed syllabus for each set of slides.

4. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. Slides, photographs, color prints, and small art objects for $1.00 plus carrying charges. No charge to N. Y. City schools.

5. Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio St., Chicago. Film sets on French art ($2.00 with manual). Also Kodachrome slides, 2 by 2 inches at 50 cents each.

6. French films, mostly with English subtitles, may be secured from such firms as (1) Ideal Pictures Corporation, 28 E. 8th St., Chicago, 5, (16 mm.); (2) Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, N. Y.; (3) Hoffberg Productions, 620 Ninth Ave., N. Y. 18, Charges are about $35.00 per day for 35 mm., less for 16 mm. Borrower pays carrying charges. The French Press and Information Service distributes free 16 mm. pictures on French geography and current history. Longer films also rented. Write A. F. Films, Inc., Motion Picture Shipping Service, 1600 Broadway, N. Y.

7. A.A.T.F. Film List gives evaluation of French films for H. S. Write D. Girard, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

## VI. MAPS

1. Rand McNally and Company, 536 S. Clark Street, Chicago 5 (French name map in colors on spring roller. $11.00.)

2. Denoyer-Geppert, 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago, has Colin name maps, 44 x 40 inches, spring roller, $9.00. Also pictorial charts on French history, and Nathan Conversation Pictures on *Le Marché, La Rue, La Ferme,* etc.

3. Odyssey Press, 386 4th Ave., N. Y. 16, unmounted wall map, 39 x 46 inches, *France politique,* provinces and cities, $1.50.

4. Thrift Press, 317 College Ave., Ithaca, N. Y. Wall map of France, 22 x 28 inches and small student's maps.

5. A.A.T.F. Bureau, Teachers College, Columbia University, has maps in notebook size at 1 cent each: *France physique, Provinces, Départements, Agriculture, Industrie, Monuments,* etc. Send for complete list.

## VII. NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES

1. *Le Film,* Poirier, Bessette, and Co., 975 De Bullion St., Montreal, Canada, monthly magazine. Similar to American movie magazines. Same company publishes *Le Samedi,* a French-Canadian *Sat. Eve. Post.* Also *La Revue Populaire,* a monthly story magazine.

2. *Le Clairon,* Saint Hyacinthe, Québec, Canada. Weekly, $3.50 a year.

3. *Le Petit Journal,* the Odyssey Press, 386 4th Ave., N. Y. 16. $1.50 a year, 16 issues. Special bulk rates.

4. *France-Amérique,* 535 5th Ave., N. Y. 17. Weekly, 15 cents a copy, $6.00 a year. Special bulk rates. This paper includes the former *Voix de France* (Harvitt & Girard) and *Pour la Victoire.* School paper supplement planned for Fall '46.

5. *La Presse,* 7 rue Saint-Jacques, Ouest, Montreal. Well-known Canadian daily. Special Sat. edition (with rotogravure).

6. *Le Recueil,* P. O. Box 100, Station B, Quebec, Canada. French *Reader's Digest*—articles from U. S. & Canada.

7. *Le Travailleur,* Worcester, Massachusetts. Weekly, $2.50 a year.

8. *La Vie,* Banks Upshaw and Co., 707 Browder St., Dallas, Texas. $2.00, 16 issues. Special bulk rates.

9. *Revue de la Pensée française,* 58 W. 57th St., N. Y. 19. Monthly—literature, biography, theatrical notes, etc. Student guide sheets.

10. *Voici,* (now *Aujourd'hui*), Carmel, N. Y. Monthly. News and articles from France. $3 yearly.

## VIII. RADIO PROGRAMS

1. Most state universities broadcast lessons in modern languages. Write to head of French department for information on current programs. Ex.: University of Wisconsin (Madison), Extension Division, broadcasts alternate Fridays, 10:30. Discs and scripts available. Broadcasts in French from New Orleans and French Canada.

2. Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Ave., N. Y. 22. Free booklet and bulletins giving programs.

3. National Broadcasting Co., R.C.A. Bldg., Radio City, N. Y. Short wave news and programs in foreign languages. Monthly news letter.

## IX. PHONOGRAPH RECORDS

1. Linguaphone Institute, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, N. Y. *Conversation Course,* 30 lessons, $50.00. Also *Literary Course,* single records, $5.00. *Brush Up Your French* and *French Intonation Exercises,* 5 records each. Price of each set, $15.00.

2. Gramaphone Shop, 18 E. 48 St., N. Y. French songs, literary selections, pronunciation, etc.
3. Decca Distributing Corp., 22 W. Hubbard, Chicago, *Les Aventures de Robert Martin*, 16 records.
4. Gregg Publishing Co., 6 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago. 6 *Findley-Gregg French Language Records.*
5. Nicolette Pernot, Middlebury French School, Middlebury, Vt. 2 records—French vowels.
6. Jeanne Varney, *Course in French Phonetics*, 5 records. Walter C. Garwick, Harrison, N. Y.
7. R. D. Cortina, 105 W. 40th St., N. Y. 15 records with text, $50.00. School discount.
8. Funk and Wagnalls, 354 4th Ave., N. Y. 10, has complete course, *Language Phone Method.*
9. Henry Holt and Co., 257 4th Ave., N. Y. 12 units of *Spoken French* by Denoeu and Hall (D. C. Heath).

## X. SONGS

1. Individual French songs or collections at Edwin B. Marks Music Corp., R.C.A. Bldg., Radio City, N. Y.
2. Jameson and Heacox, *Chants de France*, Vigneras, *Chansons de France*, D. C. Heath, 285 Columbus Ave., Boston.
3. Morize, Ruth Conniston, *Chantons un peu*, The Odyssey Press, 386 4th Ave., N. Y. 16.
4. *Chantons*, Gessler Publishing Co., Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y.—13 cents for single copies or 10 cents in bulk.
5. A.A.T.F. Bureau, T.C., Columbia Univ. French songs with melody and words, notebook-size. Send for list.

## XI. INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE

1. International Students Society, Hillsboro, Ore. Dr. N. H. Crowell. 10 cents per name. Addresses from France, Haiti, Brazil, Canada, etc.
2. Correspondance Scolaire with France and Canada. A.A.T.F. Bureau, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. 27.

# CURRENTLY AVAILABLE GERMAN REALIA

MAXIM NEWMARK
*Brooklyn Technical High School*

[From *HP*, XXIX, 1, Jan. 1947, 65–78.]

The following list of realia was compiled in order to ascertain exactly what materials of this nature are available at the present time in the United States for use in German-language instruction. As a starting point for the compilation of the list the most important previous lists of comparatively recent date have been carefully exploited, as follows:

1. *Auxiliary Syllabus in Modern Foreign Languages,* N.Y.C. Board of Education, N. Y., 1937, pp. 108–119.
2. *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching,* Cole-Tharp, D. Appleton-Century Co., N. Y., 1937, pp. 586–619.
3. *The Teaching of German,* P. Hagboldt, D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1940, pp. 188–216.
4. *Modern Language Teaching,* C. H. Handschin, World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., 1940, pp. 255–266.
5. *Modern Languages for Modern Schools,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y., 1942, pp. 490–503.
6. *Teaching a Modern Language,* Gullette-Keating-Viens, F. S. Crofts & Co., N. Y., 1942, pp. 89–136.

The availability of each item selected was determined by mail inquiry extending over the period April-August, 1946. Only those items are listed regarding which positive answers were received during the period of inquiry. The material is alphabetically arranged under subject categories to which several suggestive cross-references have been added. The source is briefly indicated for each item, but in order to save space and prevent duplication of addresses, a complete list of sources and addresses is appended.

(For addresses, see end of list.)

## ARCHITECTURE (See also FILMS)

*Die Schönsten Bauwerke Deutschlands,* Stephen Daye Press, N. Y., n.d., $4.50. 81 photographs of buildings, monuments, churches, castles, etc. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

German Architecture. Prints, 3 x 3½ to 10 x 12 inches, sepia, black and white, and color. From one cent each and up. Minimum order, 60 of the one-cent series or 30 of the two-cent series. Send 15 cents in stamps for catalog of 1600 miniature illustrations and samples. The Perry Pictures Co.

German Architecture: Medieval and Renaissance. Black and white prints, 5½ x 8 inches. Famous historical examples of churches, guild halls, castles, etc. Two cents each. Minimum order 25 cents. Send for free catalog. The University Prints.

Modern Architecture: Germany. Black and white prints, 5½ x 8 inches. Two cents each. Minimum order, 25 cents. Send for free catalog. The University Prints.

## ART (books)

*Berlin: Kaiser Friedrich Museum,* by G. Geffroy, Paris, n.d., $4.50. One of the "Les Musées d'Europe" series. Text presumably in French. 57 plates and 101 illustrations. Educational discount to libraries. H. Bittner & Co.

*Lovis Corinth,* by Robert Bertrand, Paris, 1940, $1.50. Munich School. 60 reproductions. Text presumably in French. Paul A. Struck.

*Deutsche Bauerntrachten,* Berlin, 1934, $5.50. 72 collotype plates. H. Bittner & Co.

*Deutsche Kupferstiche aus dem XV. Jahrhundert,* Berlin, n.d., $2.00. H. Bittner & Co.

*Albrecht Dürer,* by E. Panofsky, 2 vols., 1945, $20.00. 325 collotype plates. Paul A. Struck.

*German Art from the 15th to the 20th Centuries,* Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation, Philadelphia, 1936, $3.00. Exhibition of German paintings, water-colors and drawings, sponsored by the Oberländer Trust, The Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation and U. S. museums. 7 plates in full color, 120 plates in black and white. Paul A. Struck or Mary S. Rosenberg.

*Geschichte der Kunst,* by Richard Hamann. Photo-Reprint, 1945, $10.00. 1110 illustrations and 12 plates. Schoenhof's Foreign Books, Inc. or Friedrich Krause.

*George Gross Drawings.* $12.00. 51 plates. H. Bittner & Co. or Mary S. Rosenberg.

*George Grosz: 30 Drawings and Watercolors,* N. Y., 1944, $5.50. 30 plates. Introduction by Walter Mehring. Mary S. Rosenberg.

*Der Holzschnitt,* by M. J. Friedländer, Berlin, n.d., $3.00. 93 reproductions and 2 plates in color. H. Bittner & Co.

*Klassiker der Kunst.* A series of books and monographs on individual artists. Boecklin, Cranach, Dürer, Feuerbach, Holbein, Liebermann, Grosz, Marées, Schwind, Veit Stosz, etc. Educational discount to libraries. Send for free catalog No. 27 (1945–46). H. Bittner & Co.

*Max Liebermann,* by M. Friedländer, Berlin, n.d., $5.00. 104 illustrations and 8 plates. Mary S. Rosenberg.

*Der Zeichner Hans von Marées,* by J. Meier-Graefe, Munich, 1925, $15.00. 32 collotype plates. Mary S. Rosenberg.

*Skizzenbuch Alt-Münchener Meister,* by F. Wolter, Munich, 1924, $10.00. 52 collotype plates. Kaulbach, Schwind, Cornelius, Marées, Boecklin, etc. Educational discount to libraries. H. Bittner & Co.

## ART (reproductions)

**Color Miniatures of Famous Paintings.** Selections from Dürer, Hoecker, Hofmann, Holbein, Plockhorst, Schreyer, Thoma, Zimmermann, etc. One cent each. Minimum order, 50 cents plus postage. Send for free catalog Art Education, Inc.

**Color Post Cards and Reproductions.** Sizes up to 8 x 10 inches. Prices range from 5 to 50 cents. Boecklin, Cranach, Holbein, Schreyer, Thoma. Send for free catalog. Metropolitan Museum of Art.

**Dürer:** ***Virgin and Child.*** Large color reproduction, 17 x 13 inches, $12.00. Another Dürer reproduction entitled "Praying Hands," 10½ x 7½ inches, $2.00. Paul A. Struck.

**Fine Art Portfolios.** Each contains 11 reproductions suitable for framing, 12 x 16 inches, $4.50 per set. Introductions and critical commentary. Hans Holbein, Kaethe Kollwitz, George Kolbe, Ernst Barlach, Wilhelm Lehmbruck. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co. or Schoenhof's Foreign Books, Inc.

**German Painting.** Black and white prints, 5½ x 8 inches, two cents each. Minimum order, 25 cents. Special prices for sets. Soest, Wohlgemuth, Schöngauer, Holbein, Dürer, Cranach, Grünewald, etc. Send for free catalog. The University Prints.

**German Sculpture.** Black and white prints, 5½ x 8 inches, two cents each. Minimum order, 25 cents. Special prices for sets. Veit Stosz, Adam Krafft, Tilman Reimenschneider, Peter Vischer, etc. Send for free catalog. The University Prints.

**Holbein:** ***Portrait of Moretta.*** Color reproduction, 19½ x 16 inches, $12.00. Paul A. Struck.

**Kaethe Kollwitz:** ***Ten Lithographs,*** N. Y., 1941, $6.00. Portfolio with ten plates. Mary S. Rosenberg.

**Lending Collections.** Black and white, and color prints, pictures and paintings. Many items on German art, textiles, etc. Write for catalog entitled, "The Lending Collections." Metropolitan Museum of Art.

**Pictures.** Suitable for cultural scrapbooks, classroom decorations, etc. German art, architecture, famous musicians, etc. Sepia, black and white, and color, 3 x 3½ to 10 x 12 inches. One cent each and up. Minimum order, 30 of the two-cent series or 60 of the one-cent series. Send 15 cents in stamps for catalog of 1600 miniature illustrations and sample pictures. The Perry Pictures Co.

**Reproductions.** Color prints, post cards, etc., some framed. Various prices. Send for "Catalog of Reproductions." The Art Institute of Chicago.

**Seeman Prints.** Completely illustrated catalog of German masterpieces, $5.00. Limited stock of these imported prints still on hand but many subjects missing. Rudolph Lesch Fine Arts.

## BOOK DEALERS

A. Bruderhausen, 48 S. High St., Mount Vernon, N. Y.
Adler's Foreign Books, 114 Fourth Ave., N. Y. 3, N. Y.
Friedrich Krause, 851 West 177 St., N. Y. 33, N. Y.
G. E. Stechert & Co., 31 East 10 St., N. Y. 3, N. Y.
Helen Gottschalk Bookstore, 1672 Second Ave., N. Y. 28, N. Y.
Mary S. Rosenberg, 100 West 72 St., N. Y. 23, N. Y.
Oscar Neuer's Bookstore, 1614 Second Ave., N. Y. 28, N. Y.
Peter Thomas Fisher, 507 Fifth Ave., N. Y. 17, N. Y.
Schoenhof's Foreign Books, Inc., Harvard Square, Cambridge 38, Mass.

## CALENDARS (See DISPLAY MATERIALS)

## CHARTS (See DISPLAY MATERIALS)

## CLUB PROGRAMS

*A Guide for German Clubs*, by J. A. Hess. 30 cents, payable in advance. G. E. Stechert or Prof. John A. Hess, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

## COSTUMES (See "Deutsche Bauerntrachten" under ART)

## DISPLAY MATERIAL (See also ART, ARCHITECTURE, MAPS, PICTURES)

Colored Swiss Calendars: 1946. 1. *Alpine Flowers*, $2.25. 2. *Face of Switzerland*, $2.50. 3. *Alpine Landscape*, $3.25. Friedrich Krause.

Heath Modern Language Wall Charts. For vocabulary learning via pictures. 14 charts, $4.00. Reduced facsimiles and word list, 23 pp., 16 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.

*Monatskalender auf das Jahr 1946*. 20 x 28 cm., $1.25. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

National Geographic Magazine. Set of 10 back numbers $1.00. The following deal with German subjects, illustrated: June 1930, May 1931, Dec. 1931, March 1932, Feb. 1935, June 1936, Feb. 1937, July 1938, Nov. 1939, April 1941. National Geographic Society, School Service Division.

Schnitzelbank Chart. Free on request. Mader's Restaurant, 1041 North 3rd St., Milwaukee 3, Wisconsin.

## FILMS (features)

*Concert in Tyrol*. German language feature. 16mm sound. 105 minutes. Rental $17.50. International Film Bureau, Inc.

*Emil und die Detektive*. Based on the Kästner novel. 16mm sound. 77 minutes. Rental $25.00. International Film Bureau, Inc.

***The Eternal Mask.*** German language feature set in Vienna. A psychological fantasy. 16mm sound. Rental $25.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Der Hauptmann von Koepenick.*** Film version of Carl Zuckmayer's comic satire on Prussianism. 16mm sound. 85 minutes. Rental $16.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Kameradschaft.*** Famous Pabst film dealing with a mine disaster on the Franco-German border. Stresses international cooperation. 16mm sound. 85 minutes. Rental $35.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Kuhle Wampe.*** Realistic study of Berlin working class. Score by Hanns Eisler. 16mm sound. 75 minutes. Rental $20.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Mein Leipold.*** Romantic comedy-drama in a modern setting. 16mm sound. 94 minutes. Rental $25.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Das Mädel von der Reeperbahn.*** Melodrama. Useful as background material on Hamburg. 16mm sound. 87 minutes. Rental $20.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***The Making of a King.*** Historical film based on the life of Frederick the Great. 16mm sound. 10 reels. Rental $15.00. Ideal Pictures Corp.

***The Merry Wives of Vienna.*** Viennese film operetta. Music by Robert Stolz. 16mm sound, 82 minutes. Rental $25.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Mozart.*** Musical version of his life. Many excerpts from his operas, recorded by Sir Thomas Beecham and the London Philharmonic. 16mm sound. 74 minutes. Rental $20.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***Orphan Boy of Vienna (Singende Jugend).*** Music by Vienna choir boys. 85 minutes. 16mm sound. Rental $17.50. International Film Bureau, Inc.

***Shadows from the Past.*** Austrian melodrama set in Vienna. A psychological film. 16mm sound. 82 minutes. Rental $25.00. Brandon Films, Inc.

***William Tell.*** Swiss-made film produced under the supervision of the National Museum of Switzerland. 16mm sound. 65 minutes. Rental $12.00. Brandon Films, Inc. (Also U. of Wis. Bureau of Vis. Instr., Rental $8.75.)

## FILMS (musical shorts)

***Blue Danube Waltz.*** Played by a philharmonic orchestra. 16mm sound. Rental $2.00. Films, Inc.

Film Concerts. Orchestras and artist soloists. Subjects: Schubert, Weber, Bach, Liszt, Mozart, Strauss. 16mm sound. One reel each. Rental $1.50 per reel. Institutional Cinema Service, Inc.

Music Master Series. Same as above. Ideal Pictures Corp.

***Rosamunde.*** Schubert's overture presented by a symphony orchestra. 16mm sound. 10 minutes. Rental $1.50. Brandon Films, Inc.

Schubert's ***Unfinished Symphony.*** Played by a philharmonic orchestra. 16mm sound. Rental $2.00. Films, Inc.

Symphony Orchestra. Music appreciation featuring ***Ride of the Valkyries*** and ***Prelude, Act III, Lohengrin.*** 16mm sound. 10 minutes. Rental $1.00. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Tannhäuser.* Selections from Wagner's opera played by a symphony orchestra with fifty-voice chorus accompaniment. 16mm sound. Rental $2.00. Films, Inc.

## FILMS (Austria)

*Alpine Garden.* Folksongs, dances, fauna and flora in Austrian Alps. 16mm sound (English). 14 minutes. Rental $2.00. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Austria and the Alps.* A Burton Holmes travelogue. Glimpses of Vienna, down the Danube, picturesque Salzburg, the Zugspitze. 16mm silent (English captions). 18 minutes. Rental 75 cents. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Beautiful Tyrol.* A travelogue. 16mm sound (English). 13 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Day in Vienna:* Rambling in Vienna. Two subjects, one reel each. 16mm sound. Rental $1.50. Ideal Pictures Corp.

*Picturesque Salzburg.* A Burton Holmes travelogue. 16mm silent (English captions). 11 minutes. Rental 75 cents. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Salzburg Festival.* 16mm sound. 1 reel. Rental $1.50. Ideal Pictures Corp.

*Tyrolese Costumes and Customs: Beautiful Tyrol.* Two subjects, one reel each. 16mm sound. Rental $1.50. Ideal Pictures Corp.

*Village Symphony.* Austrian Alpine village, occupations and dances. 16mm sound (English). 9 minutes. Rental $1.00. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Winter in Austria.* Skiing and other winter sports in the Alps. 16mm sound (English). 11 minutes. Rental $1.00. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

## FILMS (Germany)

*Alps of Saxony.* Picturesque journey up the Elbe. 16mm silent, one reel. Write for rental. Bell & Howell Co.

*Berlin.* Principal streets, transportation system, Brandenburg Gate, Zoological Gardens, Victory Column, Reichstag, Museum, University of Berlin, modern housing, airport, etc. 15 minutes. Rental 75 cents. Study guides available at 15 cents each. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Bremen, Key to the Seven Seas.* Traces development of the seaport. 16mm sound (English). One reel. Write for rental. Bell & Howell Co.

*Germany.* Scenes of Alps, Dresden, Garmish, Weimar. 16mm sound (English). 10 minutes. Rental $1.50. Brandon Films, Inc.

*Germany: Industry.* Shipbuilding, aviation, manufacturing, canals, industrial exposition, boys in State Labor Service. 16mm silent (English captions). 16 minutes. Study guides, 15 cents each. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Germany: Rural Life.* Farms, harvesting, village markets, girls in State Labor Service. 16mm silent (English captions). 16 minutes. Rental 75 cents. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*In Goethe's Footsteps.* Region associated with Goethe's life. 16mm sound (English). One reel. Write for rental. Bell & Howell Co.

*In Old Hessen.* Hessian types, costumes and peasant dances. 16mm silent. Two reels. Rental $1.00. American Museum of Natural History.

*Land of the Wends.* Following the River Spree through Lusatia, ancient customs. 16mm sound (English). One reel. Write for rental. Bell & Howell Co.

*Master Drink of Rothenburg.* The medieval city and castle, festival play depicting scenes from the Thirty Years War. 16mm sound (English). One reel. Write for rental. Bell & Howell Co.

*Olympics, 1936.* Parade of athletes, field, swimming and rowing events. 16mm silent. 16 minutes. Rental 75 cents. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Rhineland Memories.* Pre-war scenes of the Rhineland area. 16mm sound. One reel. Rental $2.50. Visual Art Films.

*Spreewald Folks.* Pre-war scenes of peasant life along the River Spree. 16mm sound. One reel. Rental $2.50. Visual Art Films.

*The Saar.* Saarbruecken, industrial and mining scenes. 16mm sound. 10 minutes. Rental $1.50. Brandon Films.

*Trip Through Germany.* 16mm sound. One reel. Rental $1.50. Ideal Pictures Corp.

*Valleys of the Rhine.* Scenic views, towns, vineyards, farms. 16mm sound (English). 22 minutes. Rental $2.50. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr. (Also International Film Bureau, Rental $3.00.)

## FILMS (Switzerland)

*Alpine Village.* Life in a typical Swiss village in winter and summer. 16mm sound. 22 minutes. Rental $2.50. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr. (Also International Film Bureau, rental $3.00.)

*Bauernstand mit Künstlerhand.* Swiss home industries, textiles, wood-carving, lace-making, etc. 16mm sound. 22 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Beautiful Switzerland.* Alps, Lake Lucerne, Geneva, Lausanne, Interlaken. 16 mm sound (English). Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Castles in Switzerland.* 16mm sound (English). Two reels. Rental $3.00. International Film Bureau.

*Children of Switzerland.* Pastoral lives of a Swiss boy and girl, village life, outdoor scenes on the Alps. 16mm sound (English). 11 minutes. Rental $1.25. Study guides, 15 cents each. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Men of the Alps* Life of Swiss mountaineers, dairying, mountain climbing, skiing and skating, tourist trade, farm life. 16mm sound (English). 10 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr. (Also International Film Bureau, rental $1.50.)

*Switzerland.* Alpine scenery. 16mm sound (English). 9 minutes. Rental $1.00. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

## FILMS (miscellaneous)

*Expansion of Germany.* Economic treatment; from 1870 to 1914. 16mm sound (English). 10 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Geopolitik.* A propaganda short on Haushofer, Hitler and geopolitics. 16mm sound (English). 22 minutes. Rental $2.50. Includes pupil study sheet. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*Germany under Hitler.* Buildings, dining and dancing, parades and demonstrations, labor camps, military drill. "A film of decided social importance." 16mm sound (English). 11 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*That Mothers Might Live.* Story of Dr. Semmelweiss and the conquest of puerperal fever. 16mm sound (English). 11 minutes. Rental $1.25. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*The Deutsches Museum in Munich.* A comparison of the Deutsches Museum and the Chicago Planetarium. 16mm sound (English). One reel. Rental $1.50. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

*The Story That Couldn't be Printed.* Story of Peter Zenger and the freedom of the press. 16mm sound (English). 11 minutes. U. of Wis. Bur. of Vis. Instr.

## FILMSTRIPS (See SLIDES AND FILMSTRIPS)

## FOLK DANCES (See MUSIC—Instrumental Recordings)

## GAMES

*Bastelkünste und Liebhaberarbeiten,* Pfeiffer. $2.00. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Deutsche Volksrätsel.* $1.00. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Frag mich was! Frage—und Antwortspiel,* Rundt. $1.25. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Learn A Lingo: German.* Picture and word game on cards. $1.00. Roger Stephens Publishing Co.

*Rätselraten Durch Alle Rätselarten.* $1.25. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

## MAPS

*Germany and Its Approaches* (as of Sept. 1, 1939). Ten color wall map, 33½ x 26½ inches. Paper, 50 cents. Linen, $1.00. Index, 25 cents. National Geographic Society.

*Language Map of Europe and the Near East.* 66 x 46 inches. Hand mounted on cloth. From $6.75 to $10.25 depending on additional mechanical features. Send for catalog. Rand McNally Co.

*Map of Germany.* Wall map on cloth with sticks on top and bottom. 24 x 36 inches. $4.50. Paper, $1.00. C. S. Hammond & Co., Inc.

Maps of Germany. (1) Map J38g: *Germany.* 44 x 58 inches. Paper, $4.50. (2) Map H10: *Germany at the Time of the Reformation* (1547). 44 x 32 inches. Paper, $1.35. (3) Map H20: *Growth of Prussia and Modern Germany* (1740–1930). 44 x 32 inches. Paper, $1.35. Write for List G26. Denoyer-Geppert Co.

Outline Maps for School Use. Map No. 4507: *Middle Europe.* 8 x 10½ inches. Single copies, one cent; 70 cents per 100; $6.00 per 1000. Minimum order 25 cents. Will make up maps previously listed if ordered in sufficient quantity. Write for information. McKnight & McKnight.

*Student's Map of Germany.* Paper, black and white, 10 x 11 inches. Two cents each in quantities of 10. The Thrift Press.

The University Series. Desk study maps. 8½ x 11. 10 cents each. 50 per cent discount for 100 or more. Complete set of 13, $1.00. Subjects: (1) *World Languages.* (2) *World Density of Population.* (3) *World Religions.* (4) *World Occupations.* (5) *Climates of the World,* etc., etc. Write for catalog. C. S. Hammond & Co.

*Wall Map of Germany.* Paper, black and white, 28 x 22 inches. Top and bottom metal strips with rings for hanging. Dotted line indicates former boundaries of Germany. 25 cents. The Thrift Press.

## MISCELLANEOUS AIDS

German Verb Wheel, Cuthbertson. 40 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.

German Word Cards. 1364 words on small cards with translations on rear. Boxed. $2.35. Schoenhof's Foreign Books, Inc.

Language Reading Report Blanks, Bond. 40 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.

## MUSIC (History, musicians, etc.) (See also SONG BOOKS)

*Geschichte der Musik,* Einstein. $1.00. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Beethoven,* Wiegler. $1.25. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Librettos of the Wagner Operas.* English and German parallel texts and music of the principal airs. Synopsis of each opera. $2.00. Postage free if remittance accompanies order. Crown Publishers.

*Musikeranekdoten,* Hollerop. $1.25. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

*Sieben Geschichten vom Göttlichen Mozart,* Schurig. $1.00. Frederick Ungar Publishing Co.

## MUSIC (LIEDER collections)

Brahms, Johannes: (1) *Eighteen Songs.* 60 cents. (2) *Fifty Selected Songs.* 3 vols. $1.75. G. Schirmer, Inc. (3) *Forty Songs.* Oliver Ditson Series. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

Franz, Robert: (1) *Eighteen Songs.* 3 vols. 60 cents each. G. Schirmer, Inc. (2) *Fifty Songs.* Oliver Ditson Series. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

*Gems of German Song.* $1.25. Theodore Presser Co.

Liszt, Franz: (1) *Twelve Songs*. 2 vols. 75 cents each. G. Schirmer, Inc. (2) *Thirty Songs*. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

Loewe, Carl: *Twelve Songs and Ballads*. 2 vols. 60 cents each. G. Schirmer, Inc.

Mendelssohn, Felix: *Complete Collection of Songs*. $1.75. G. Schirmer, Inc.

Schubert, Franz: (1) *First Vocal Album*. Four parts in one volume: *Die Schöne Müllerin, Winterreise, Schwanengesang, Beliebte Lieder*. $3.00. G. Schirmer, Inc. (2) *Fifty Songs*. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

Schumann, Robert: (1) *Eighteen Songs*. 3 vols. 50 cents each. G. Schirmer, Inc. (2) *Fifty Songs*. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

Strauss, Richard: *Forty Songs*. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

Wolf, Hugo: *Fifty Songs*. $2.50. Theodore Presser Co.

## MUSIC (Instrumental recordings)

Austrian Peasant Dances. Clogdance (*Schuhplattler*); The Stomper (*G'Strampfter*). Rec. Cat. No. 4489. 75 cents. RCA Victor.

German Folk Dances. *Broom Dance; Brummel Schottische; Come Let Us be Joyful*. Rec. Cat. No. 20448. 50 cents. RCA Victor.

Dances From Austria. The Seven Leaps (*Die Sieben Sprünge*); Hogdance (*Sautanz*); Two-Step (*Zwoaschritt*). Rec. Cat. No. 4490. 75 cents. RCA Victor.

*Der Tannenbaum; Stille Nacht*. Rec. Cat. No. 1748. 75 cents. RCA Victor.

Educational German Records. Rec. Cat. Nos. 20432; 20448; 21620. 50 cents each. RCA Victor.

*Strauss Waltzes*. Album Cat. No. P-14. $2.00. RCA Victor.

*A Wagner Concert*. Fritz Reiner and the Pittsburgh Symphony. Prelude, *Meistersinger;* Forest Murmurs, *Siegfried; Preludes,* Act I, Act III, *Lohengrin; Ride of the Valkyries* Set M-549. $4.50. Columbia Recording Corp.

## MUSIC (Vocal recordings)

Beethoven: Song Cycle. *An die ferne Geliebte*. Rec. Cat. Nos. 12246; 12247. $1.00 each. RCA Victor.

Brahms: *Song Album*. Marian Anderson and the U. of P. Glee Club. Album Cat. No. M-555. $3.25. RCA Victor.

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